

DESIGN OF MIMO ANTENNA FOR BAND NOTCHED UWB APPLICATIONS

*A project report submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award
of the degree of*

BACHELOR OF TECHNOLOGY

IN

ELECTRONICS AND COMMUNICATION ENGINEERING

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DEPARTMENT OF ELECTRONICS AND COMMUNICATION ENGINEERING

ANIL NEERUKONDA INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY AND SCIENCES

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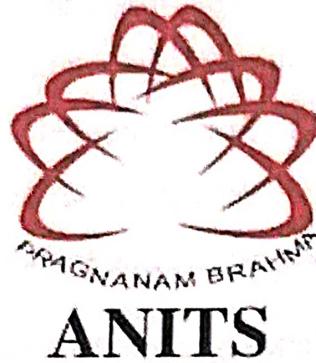
Sangivalasa, bheemilimandal, visakhapatnam dist.(A.P)

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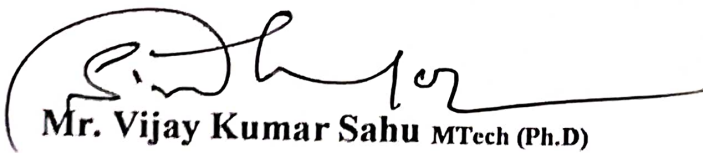
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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the project report entitled "DESIGN OF MIMO ANTENNA FOR BAND NOTCHED UWB APPLICATIONS" submitted by P.Vathsalya (318126512116), G.V.Nagarjuna(318126512079), D.Thirumalesh (318126512079), K.Kiran (318126512082) in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award the degree of Bachelor of Technology in Electronics & Communication Engineering of Andhra University, Visakhapatnam is a record of bonafide work carried out under my guidance and super vision.

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ABSTRACT

Spectrum from 3.1 to 10.6 GHz is released for commercial application, UWB techniques have drawn considerable attention due to the merits such as wide bandwidth, high data rate, and low cost. Moreover, designing the antenna in order to reject the interference with the existing wireless communication systems such as the Wireless Local Area Networks (WLAN) operating at 5.15-5.85 GHz, antennas are required to filter out the undesired band. The Project aims in designing a compact band notched UWB MIMO antenna with two identical antenna elements. The antenna designed would be compared with the conventional center fed patch antenna. The designed antenna is aimed to possess polarization diversity along with the above said characteristics while taking proper care in ensuring minimal mutual coupling between the elements designed, as this would deteriorate the performance of the MIMO antenna. Results like return loss, VSWR, and gain would be presented.

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1. Antenna

1.1 Introduction

Communication has become the key to momentous changes in the organization of business and industries as they themselves adjust to the shift to an information economy. Information is indeed the lifeblood of modern economies and antennas provide the earth as a solution to a wireless communications system.

An antenna is a transducer designed to transmit or receive electromagnetic waves. In other words, antennas convert electromagnetic waves into electric currents and vice versa. They are used with waves in the radio part of the electromagnetic spectrum, that is, radio waves, and are a necessary part of all radio equipment. Antennas have many uses: communication, radar, telemetry navigation, etc. The figure shows the output from a coherent source (e.g. an oscillator) is directed out into free space using an antenna. The signal source is linked to the antenna by some kind of waveguide (microwave guide light fiber etc). The antenna acts as a sort of transformer. It takes the electromagnetic field pattern, moving along the guide and transforms it into some other pattern, which is radiated out into free space.

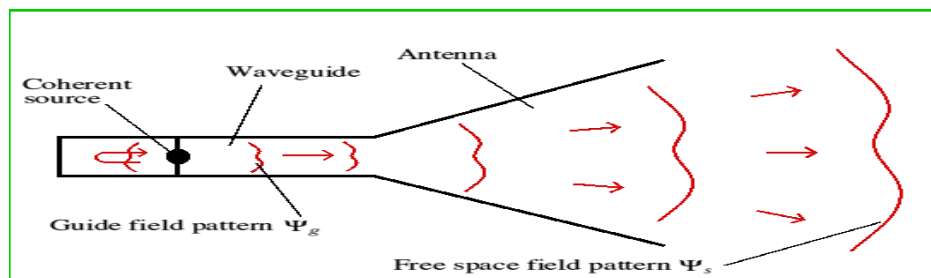


Fig 1.1: Schematic of an antenna system

Using this simple picture we can establish two basic properties of any antenna

- An antenna itself does not generate any power. So, unless the antenna is imperfect and dissipates some power the total power carried by the guide and free space fields must be the same. Practically, all antennas tend to be slightly resistive. So some power is normally lost, but for now, we can assume any loss is small enough to ignore.
- An antenna is a reciprocal device i.e., it behaves in the same way irrespective of the way we pass signal power through it. This reciprocal behavior is a useful

feature of a coherent antenna. It means that in principle, the only difference between a 'transmitting' and a 'receiving' antenna is the direction we've chosen to pass signals through it.

1.2 Types of Antennas:

There are two fundamental types of antenna directional patterns, which with reference to a specific two-dimensional plane (usually horizontal [parallel to the ground] or vertical perpendicular to the ground) are either:

1. Omni-directional (radiates equally in all directions), such as a vertical rod (in the horizontal plane) or
2. Directional (radiates more in one direction than in the other)

In colloquial usage "omnidirectional" usually refers to all horizontal directions with reception above and below the antenna being reduced in favor of better reception near the horizon. A directional antenna usually refers to one focusing a narrow beam in a single specific direction such as a telescope or satellite dish, or, at least, focusing in a sector such as a 120° horizontal fan pattern in the case of a panel antenna at a cell site. The present antenna in the thesis i.e. Microstrip antenna is an omnidirectional antenna which radiates normal to the patch surface into the upper hemisphere (180° in elevation plane) and 360° in the azimuth plane.

Basic Models of Antennas:

There are many variations of antennas. Below are a few basic models.

- The **Isotropic radiator** is a purely theoretical antenna that radiates equally in all directions. It is considered to be a point in space with no dimensions and no mass. This antenna cannot physically exist but is useful as a theoretical model for comparison with all other antennas. Most antennas' gains are measured with reference to an isotropic radiator and are rated in dB (decibels with respect to an isotropic radiator).
- The **Dipole antenna** is simply two wires pointed in opposite directions arranged either horizontally or vertically, with one end of each wire connected to the radio and the other end hanging free in space. Since this is the simplest practical antenna.

- The **Yagi-Uda** antenna is a directional variation of the dipole with parasitic elements added which are functionally similar to adding a reflector and lenses (directors) to focus a filament light bulb.
- The **random wire antenna** is simply a very long (at least one-quarter wavelength) wire with one end connected to the radio and the other in free space, arranged in any way most convenient for the space available. Folding will reduce effectiveness and make theoretical analysis extremely difficult.
- The **Parabolic antenna** consists of an active element at the focus of a parabolic reflector to reflect the waves into a plane wave. Like the horn, it is used for high gain, microwave applications, such as satellite dishes.
- **Patch antenna** consists mainly of a square conductor mounted over a ground plane. Another example of a planar antenna is the tapered slot antenna (TSA), as the Vivaldi antenna.

1.3 Basic Antenna Parameters:

1.3.1 Radiation Pattern:

An Antenna radiation pattern is defined as “a mathematical function or a graphical representation of the radiation properties of the antenna as a function of space coordinates. In most cases, the radiation pattern is determined in the far-field region and is represented as a function of directional coordinates. The figure shows an asymmetrical three-dimensional polar pattern with a number of radiation lobes.

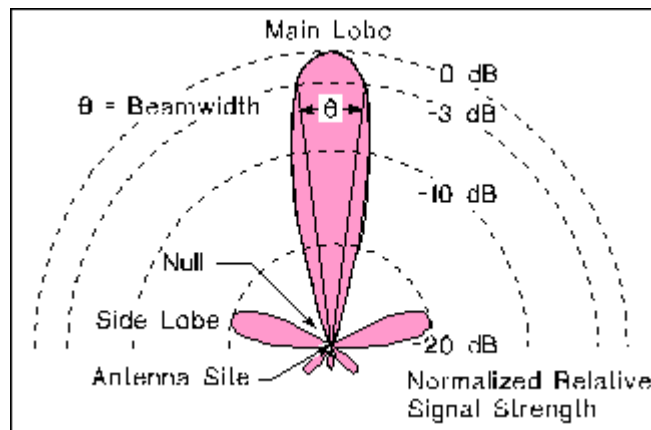


Fig1.2: Radiation lobes of an antenna pattern

1.3.2 Beam width

The beamwidth of a pattern is defined as the angular separation between two identical points on the opposite side of the pattern maximum. One of the most widely used beam widths is the Half-Power Beam width (HPBW). Another important beam width is the angular separation between the first nulls of the pattern, and it is referred to as the First Null Beamwidth (FNBW). Both HPBW and FNBW are shown in figure 1.3

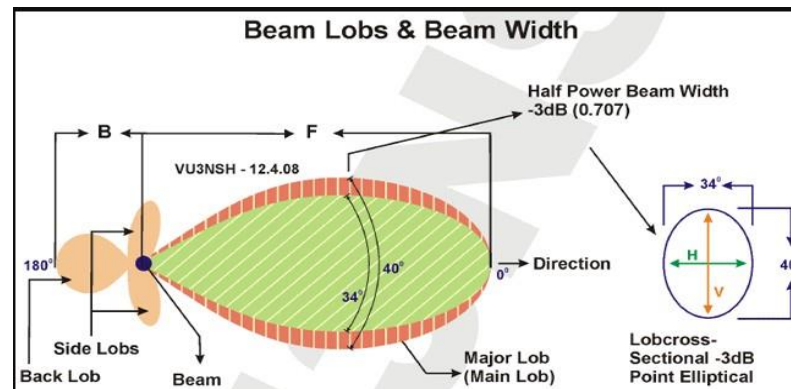


Fig1.3: Beamwidth of an Antenna

1.3.3 Directivity:

The directivity of an antenna is “the ratio of the radiation intensity in a given direction from the antenna to the radiation intensity averaged over all directions”. The average radiation intensity is equal to the total power radiated by the antenna divided by 4π .

$$D = \frac{U}{U_{av}} = \frac{4\pi U}{Prad} \quad (1.1)$$

1.3.4 Gain:

The gain of the antenna is closely related to the directivity, it is a measure that takes into account the efficiency of the antenna as well as its directional capabilities. A gain of an antenna is defined as “the ratio of intensity in a given direction to the radiation intensity that would be obtained if the power accepted by the antenna were radiated isotropically”. The radiation intensity corresponding to the isotropically radiated power is equal to the power accepted by the antenna divided by 4π .

$$\text{Gain} = 4 \frac{\pi(\text{radiation intensity})}{\text{total input power}} = 4 \frac{\pi U(\theta, \phi)}{\rho} \quad (1.2)$$

1.3.5 Effective Length:

The effective length represents the antenna in its transmitting and receiving modes and it is particularly useful in relating the open-circuit voltage V_{oc} of receiving antennas. This relation can be expressed as

$$V_{oc} = E_i \times L_e \quad (1.3)$$

Where V_{oc} = open-circuit voltage at antenna terminals,
 E_i = incident electric field
 L_e = vector effective length

1.3.6 Antenna Equivalent Areas:

These equivalent areas are used to describe the power capturing characteristics of the antenna when a wave impinges on it. The different antenna equivalent areas are scattering area, loss area, capture area. The scattering area is defined as the equivalent area when multiplied by the incident power density is equal to the scattered or re-radiated power. The loss area is defined as the equivalent area when multiplied by the incident power density leads to the power dissipated as heat through a load. The capture area is defined as the equivalent area when multiplied by the incident power density leads to the total captured, collected, or intercepted by the antenna. In general

$$\text{Capture area} = \text{Effective area of scattering area} + \text{loss area}$$

1.3.7 Antenna Efficiency:

The total efficiency E_0 is used to take into account losses at the input terminals and within the structure of the antenna. Such losses may be due to reflections because of the mismatch between the transmission line and the antenna and IR losses due to the conductors and dielectric.

In general overall efficiency can be written as

$$E_0 = E_r E_c E_d \quad (1.4)$$

Where E_0 = Total efficiency.

E_r = Reflection efficiency
 E_c = conduction efficiency
 E_d = dielectric efficiency

1.3.8 Input impedance:

The input impedance of an antenna is impedance presented by an antenna at its terminals. The antenna impedance Z_A can be expressed as,

$$Z_A = R_A + jX_A \Omega \quad (1.5)$$

Where R_A is the antenna resistance in ohms and X_A is the antenna reactance in Ohms. The radiation Resistance is expressed as

$$R_A = R_r + R_L \Omega \quad (1.6)$$

Where R_r is the radiation resistance and R_L is the loss resistance. The radiation resistance is associated with the radiation of real power. For a lossless antenna, the input resistance reduces the radiation resistance. The input impedance is also the ratio of the voltage to current at its terminal or the ratio of the appropriate electric and magnetic fields at a point.

1.3.9 Bandwidth:

The bandwidth of an antenna is that frequency range over which it will perform within certain specified limits. These limits are with respect to impedance match, gain, and/or radiation pattern characteristics.

Typical specification limits are

- An impedance mismatch of less than 2:1 relative to some standard impedance such as 50 ohms
- A loss in gain or efficiency of no more than 3 dB.
- A directivity pattern whose main beam is 13 dB greater than any of the sidelobes, and a back lobe at least 15 dB below the main beam
- Bandwidth is measured by changing the frequency of a constant strength test wave above and below center frequency and measuring power output. The high and low frequencies, where power is one-half (-3 dB) of what it was at the

center, define the bandwidth. It is expressed as frequency (high minus low) or in percentage $(\text{high}-\text{low}/\text{centre} \times 100\%)$. Figure 1.4 shows the typical bandwidth plot of the microstrip antenna.

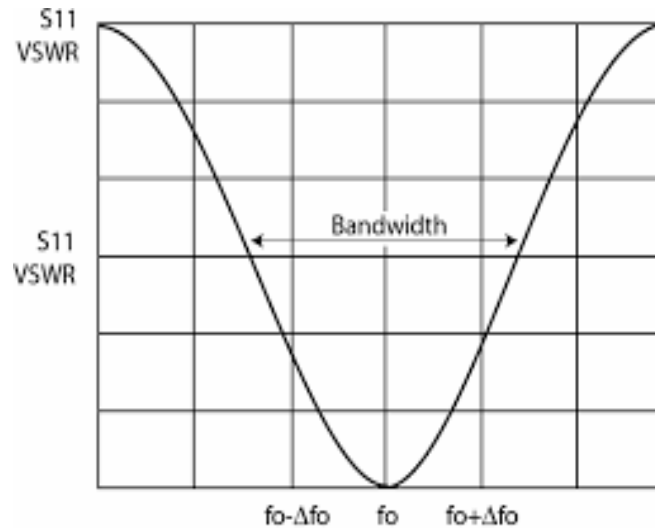


Fig1.4: Bandwidth of the antenna

1.3.10 Reflection coefficient and Return loss:

Reflection Coefficient shows what fraction of an incident signal is reflected when a source drives a load. A **reflection coefficient** magnitude of zero is a perfect match; a value of one is a perfect reflection. The symbol for the reflection coefficient is uppercase Greek Letter gamma (Γ). Note that the reflection coefficient is a vector, so it includes an angle. Unlike VSWR, the reflection coefficient can distinguish between short and open circuits. A short circuit has a value of -1 (1 at an angle of 180 degrees), while an open circuit is one at an angle of 0 degrees. Quite often we refer to only the magnitude of the reflection coefficient.

Return Loss shows the level of the reflected signal with respect to the incident signal in dB. The negative sign is dropped from the return loss value, so a large value for return loss indicates a small reflected signal. The **return loss** of a load is merely the magnitude of the reflection coefficient expressed in decibels.

The correct equation for return loss is:

$$\text{ReturnLoss} = -20 \log(\Gamma) \quad (1.7)$$

Thus, in its correct form, return loss will usually be a positive number. If it's not, you can usually blame measurement error. The exception to the rule is something with negative resistance, which implies that it is an active device (external DC power is converted to RF) and it is potentially unstable (it could oscillate).

1.3.11 Voltage Standing Wave Ratio (VSWR):

VSWR describes how much energy is reflected from the antenna because of impedance mismatching. A perfectly impedance matched antenna would have VSWR equal to one. Return loss (RL) is often used as it illustrates the gain reduction that would be introduced due to the mismatch of the antenna. VSWR is very important for wireless communications because the received signals from the satellites are usually very weak (on the order of -160 dB) and reflections are undesired on the transmission line connecting the antenna and the receiver. VSWR less than 2:1 (equivalent to a return loss of -9.5 dB) is considered to be acceptable for most wireless applications because the time delay of any reflections is typically small, thus providing small amounts of error within the receiver. A lower VSWR may be required for particularly high-performance applications and unique installations

$$\text{VSWR} = \frac{1 + |\Gamma|}{1 - |\Gamma|} \quad (1.8)$$

1.3.12 Polarization:

A radiated wave's polarization is determined by the direction of the lines of force making up the electric field. If the lines of electric force are at right angles to the Earth's surface, the wave is vertically polarized. If the lines of electric force are parallel to the Earth's surface, the wave is horizontally polarized as shown in Figure 1.5. When a single-wire antenna extracts (receives) energy from a passing radio wave, maximum pickup results if the antenna is oriented in the same direction as the electric field component.

A vertical antenna receives vertically polarized waves, and a horizontal antenna receives horizontally polarized waves. If the field rotates as the waves travel through space, both horizontal and vertical components of the field exist, and the wave is elliptically polarized. Generally, the antenna radiates an elliptical polarization, which is defined by three parameters: axial ratio, tilt angle, and sense of rotation. When the axial ratio is infinite or zero, the polarization becomes linear with the tilt angle defining

the orientation. The quality of linear polarization is usually indicated by the level of the cross-polarization. For the unity axial ratio, a perfect circular polarization results and the tilt angle is not applicable.

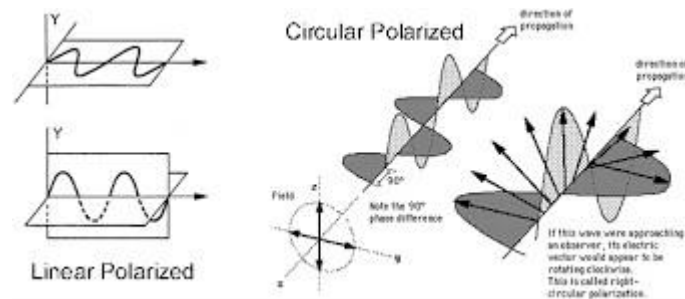


Fig1.5: Linear and circular polarization of an antenna

In general, the axial ratio is used to specify the quality of circularly polarized waves as shown. Antennas produce circularly polarized waves when two orthogonal field components with equal amplitude but in phase quadrature are radiated.

1.3.13 Axial ratio:

The Axial Ratio is the ratio of the orthogonal components of an E-field. A circularly polarized field is made up of two orthogonal E-field components of equal amplitudes and 90 degrees out of phase. Because the components are equal in magnitude, the Axial Ratio is 1 (or 0 dB). In order to check the polarization of the designed antenna, the axial ratio (AR) was calculated and analyzed. The axial ratio, as defined, is the ratio of the major axis to the minor axis of the tilted ellipse formed by the electric field of elliptically polarized waves.

$$\text{Axial ratio (AR)} = \frac{\text{major axis}}{\text{minor axis}} \quad 1 \leq \text{AR} \leq \infty \quad (1.9)$$

1.4 EQUIVALENT DIAGRAM OF AN ANTENNA:

A transmission-line Thevenin equivalent of the antenna system is shown in figure. Source is represented by an ideal generator, the transmission line is represented by a line with characteristic impedance Z_s , and the antenna is represented by a load Z_L where,

$$Z_L = R_L + jX_L \quad (1.10)$$

The load resistance R_L is used to represent the conduction and dielectric losses associated with antenna structure while R_r referred to as the radiation resistance, is used to

represent radiation by the antenna. The reactance X_L is used to represent the imaginary part of the impedance associated with radiation by the antenna. Taking into account the internal impedance of the source and neglecting line and reflection (mismatch) losses, maximum power is delivered to the antenna under conjugate matching.

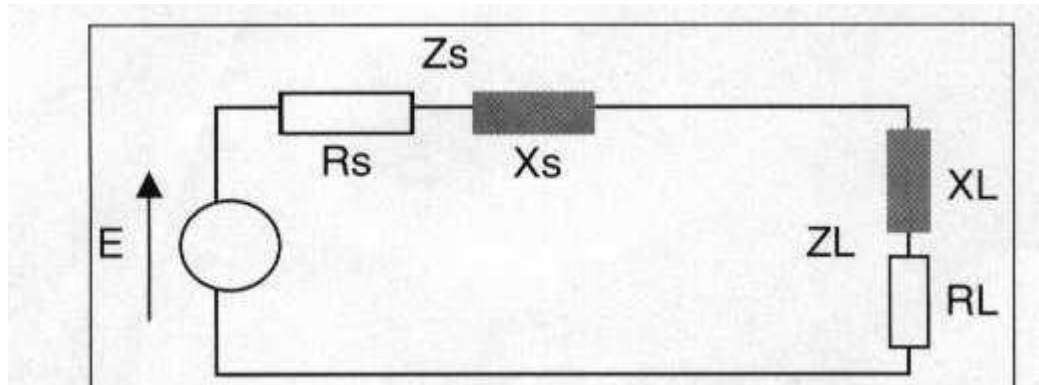


Fig1.6:Equivalent diagram of an antenna

2. Microstrip antenna

2.1 Introduction:

Microstrip antennas are attractive due to their lightweight, conformability, and low cost. These antennas can be integrated with printed strip-line feed networks and active devices. This is a relatively new area of antenna engineering. The radiation properties of microstrip structures have been known since the mid-1950s.

The application of this type of antenna started in the early 1970s when conformal antennas were required for missiles. Rectangular and circular microstrip resonant patches have been used extensively in a variety of array configurations. A major contributing factor for recent advances of microstrip antennas is the current revolution in electronic circuit miniaturization brought about by developments in large scale integration. As conventional antennas are often bulky and costly part of an electronics system, microstrip antennas based on photolithographic technology are seen as an engineering breakthrough.

In its most fundamental form, a Microstrip Patch antenna consists of a radiating patch on one side of a dielectric substrate which has a ground plane on the other side. The patch is generally made of conducting material such as copper or gold and can take any possible shape. The radiating patch and the feed lines are usually photoetched on the dielectric substrate.

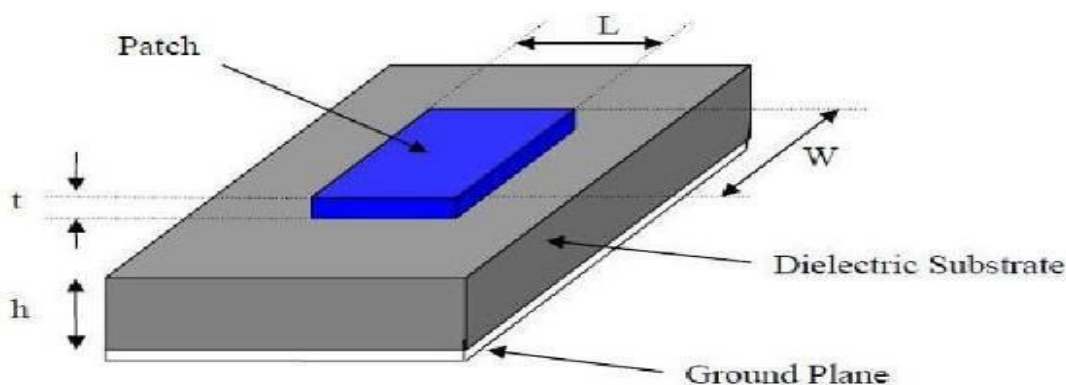


Fig 2.1: structure of Microstrip patch antenna

In order to simplify analysis and performance prediction, the patch is generally square, rectangular, circular, triangular, and elliptical or some other common shape. For a rectangular patch, the length L of the patch is usually $0.333\lambda_0 < L < 0.5\lambda_0$ where λ_0 is the free-space wavelength. The patch is selected to be very thin such that $t \ll \lambda_0$ (Where t is the patch thickness). The height of the dielectric substrate (h) is usually $0.003\lambda_0 \leq h$

$\leq 0.05\lambda_0$. The dielectric constant of the substrate (ϵ_r) is in the range of $2.2 \leq \epsilon_r \leq 12$.

typically in

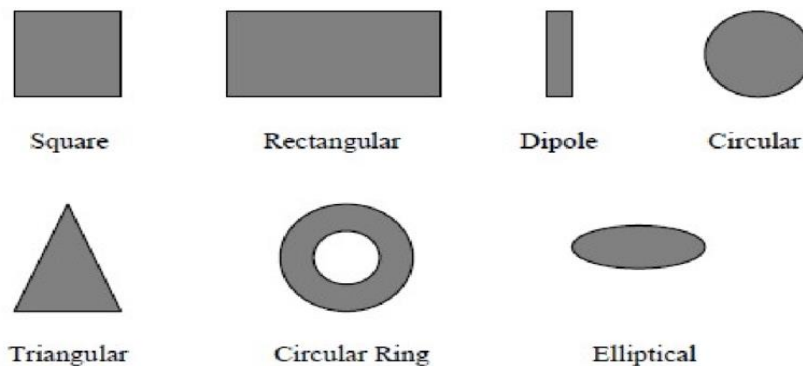


Fig 2.2: Common shape of microstrip patch elements

Microstrip patch antennas radiate primarily because of the fringing fields between the patch edge and the ground plane. For good antenna performance, a thick dielectric substrate having a low dielectric constant is desirable since this provides better efficiency, larger bandwidth and better radiation. However, such a configuration leads to larger antenna size. In order to design a compact Microstrip patch antenna, substrates with higher dielectric constants must be used which are less efficient and result in narrow bandwidth between the antenna dimensions and antenna performance. Hence a trade-off must be realized between the antenna dimensions and antenna performance.

2.2 Microstrip structures:

A microstrip structure is made with a thin sheet of low-loss insulating material called the dielectric substrate. It is completely covered with metal on the inside, called the ground plane, and partly metalized on the other side, where the circuit or antenna shapes are printed. Components can be included in the circuit either by planting lumped components (resistors, inductors, capacitors, semiconductors, and ferrite devices) or by realizing them directly within the circuit. Each part of the microstrip structure will be explained in detail as follows:

2.2.1 Dielectric Substrate:

The dielectric substrate is the mechanical backbone of the microstrip circuit. It provides stable support for the conductor strips and patches that make up

conducting lines, resonators, and antennas. It ensures that the components that are implanted are properly located and firmly held in place, just as in printed circuits for electronics at lower frequencies. The substrate also fulfills an electric function by concentrating the electromagnetic fields and preventing unwanted radiation in circuits. The dielectric is an integral part of the connecting transmission lines and deposited components; its permittivity and thickness determine the electrical characteristics of the circuit or of the antenna.

2.2.2 conductor layers

Nowadays, many commercial suppliers provide a wide range of microstrip substrates already metalized on both faces. The conductor on the upper surface is chemically etched to realize the circuit pattern by a photography technique. A mask of the circuit of the antenna is drawn, generally at a convenient scale, and then reduced and placed in close contact with a photoresistive layer, which has previously been deposited on top of the metalized substrate.

The lower metal part is the ground plane. The ground plane, besides acting as a mechanical support, provides for the integration of several components and serves also as a heat sink and de-bias return for active devices. The resulting sandwich is then exposed to ultraviolet rays, which reach the photosensitive layer where it is not covered by the mask. The exposed parts are removed by the photographic development, and the metal cover is etched away from the exposed area. This process is called the subtractive process. Alternatively, one may wish to use a bare dielectric substrate as a starting material and deposit metal either by evaporation or by sputtering through the holes in the mask. This is called the additive thin film process. In the thick-film process, a metallic paste is squeezed through the holes in a mask deposited over a silkscreen. The latter approach, however, is less accurate and is seldom used at very high frequencies.

2.3 Waves on Microstrip:

The mechanisms of transmission and radiation in a microstrip can be understood by considering a point current source (Hertz dipole) located on top of the grounded dielectric substrate. This source radiates electromagnetic waves. Depending on the direction toward which waves are transmitted, they fall within three distinct categories, each of which exhibits different behaviors.

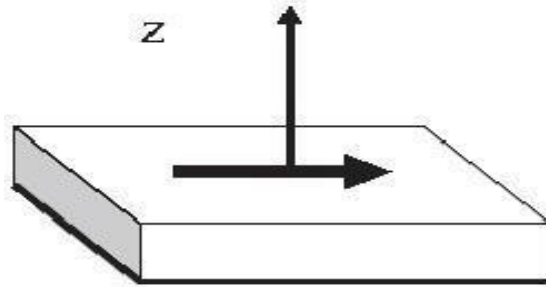


Fig2.3: Hertz dipole on a microstrip substrate

2.3.1 Surface Waves:

The waves transmitted slightly downward, having elevation angles between $\pi/2$ and π - arcs in $(1/\sqrt{\epsilon_r})$, meet the ground plane, which reflects them, and then meet the dielectric-to-air boundary, which also reflects them (total reflection condition). The magnitude of the field amplitudes builds up for some particular incidence angle that leads to the excitation of a discrete set of surface wave modes, which are similar to the modes in metallic waveguide.

The fields remain mostly trapped within the dielectric, decaying exponentially above the interface. The vector α , pointing upward, indicates the direction of the largest attenuation. The wave propagates horizontally along, with little absorption in a good quality dielectric. With two directions of α and β orthogonal to each other, the wave is a non-uniform plane wave. Surface waves spread out in cylindrical fashion around the excitation point, with field amplitudes decreasing with distance (r), say $1/r$, more slowly than space waves. The same guiding mechanism provides propagation within optical fibers.

Surface waves take up some part of the signal's energy, which does not reach the intended user. The signal's amplitude is thus reduced, contributing to an apparent attenuation or a decrease in antenna efficiency. Additionally, surface waves also introduce spurious coupling between different circuits of antenna elements. This effect severely degrades the performance of microstrip filters because the parasitic interaction reduces the isolation in the stop bands.

In large periodic phased arrays, the effect of surface wave coupling becomes particularly obnoxious, and the array can neither transmit nor receive when it is pointed at some particular directions (blind spots). This is due to a resonance phenomenon

when the surface waves excite in synchronism the Floquet modes of the periodic structure Surface waves reaching the outer boundaries of an open microstripstructure are reflected and refracted by the edges. The diffracted waves provide an additional contribution to radiation, degrading the antenna pattern by raising the sidelobe and the cross-polarization levels. Surface wave effects are mostly negative, for circuits and for antennas, so their excitation should be suppressed if possible.

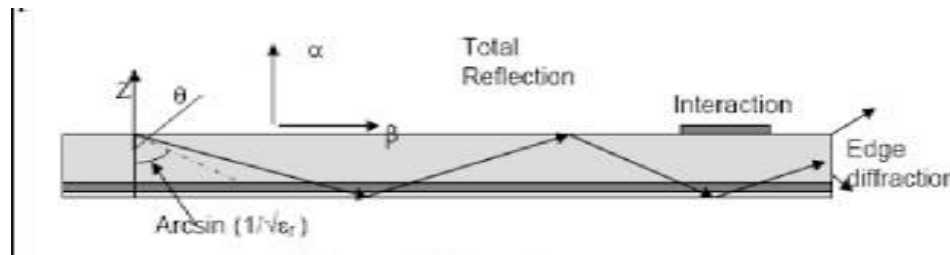


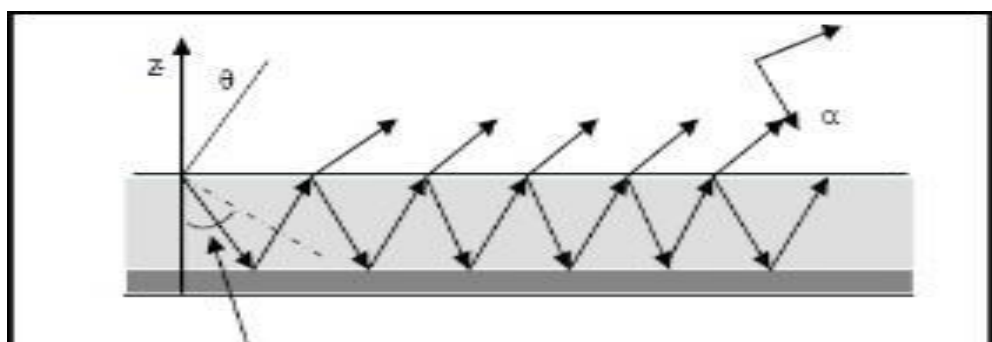
Fig2.4: Surface waves

2.3.2 Leaky waves:

Waves directed more sharply downward, with θ angles between $\pi \arcsin(1/\sqrt{\epsilon_r})$ and π are also reflected by the ground plane but only partially by the dielectric-to-air boundary. They progressively leak from the substrate into the air, hence their name leaky waves, and eventually contribute to radiation. The leaky waves are also nonuniform plane waves for which the attenuation direction points downward, which may appear to be rather odd; the amplitude of the waves increases as one moves away from the dielectric surface.

This apparent paradox is the field amplitude increase in the move away from substrate because the wave radiates from a point where the signal amplitude is larger. Since the structure is finite this apparent divergent behavior can only exist locally and the wave vanishes abruptly as one crosses the trajectory of the first ray.

In more complex structures made with several layers of different dielectrics, leaky waves can be used to increase the apparent antenna size and provide large gains. This occurs for favorable stacking arrangements and at a particular



frequency. Conversely, leaky waves are not excited in some other multilayer structures.

Fig 2.5: Leaky waves

2.3.3 Guided Waves:

When realizing printed circuits, one locally adds a metal layer on top of the substrate which modifies the geometry, introducing an additional reflecting boundary. Waves directed into the dielectric located under the upper conductor bounce back and forth on the metal boundaries, which form a parallel plate waveguide. The waves in the metallic guide can only exist for some particular values of the angle of incidence, forming a discrete set of waveguide modes. The guided waves provide the normal operation of all transmission lines and circuits, in which the electromagnetic fields are mostly concentrated in the volume below the upper conductor. On the other hand, this build-up of electromagnetic energy is not favorable for patch antennas, which behave like tests with a limited frequency bandwidth.

2.4 Microstrip Antenna Types:

2.4.1 Microstrip Dipole:

The small size of the dipole antennas makes them attractive for many applications but also results in the very narrow frequency bandwidth. No transverse current flows on a narrow dipole, so the cross-polarization level is inherently low.

A microstrip dipole is usually fed by a balanced feed, for instance, a parallel two-wire line printed on the substrate or two wires connected through the substrate. Transitions or baluns must then be incorporated to connect the feed to a microstrip line or to a coaxial line, which is both inherently unbalanced transmission lines.

Alternatively, dipoles may also be fed by electromagnetic coupling with embedded feedlines.

2.4.2 Microstrip Patch:

Printed patch antennas use radiating elements of a wide variety of shapes. Square, rectangle, circle, ring, triangle, or more complex geometrical figures, and a combination of simpler shapes are also used for the applications. The selection of a particular shape depends on the parameters one wishes to optimize bandwidth, side lobe cross-polarization, and antenna size.

Microstrip patches present a somewhat broader relative bandwidth than dipoles, of the order of a few percent. In contrast to thin dipoles, patches may excite some surface current flowing across the transverse direction, which then radiates an unwanted cross-polarized component. Its amplitude is critically dependent on the kind of feed and its location with respect to the axes of the patch.

2.4.2.1 Rectangular Patches

The geometry-shape most commonly used to realize microstrip patch antennas are the rectangle. A rectangular patch can be considered to be an open-ended section of transmission line of length L and width W . The fringing fields at the two ends are accounted for by adding an equivalent ΔL at both ends.

$$F_m = \frac{m c_0}{|L + \Delta L|}$$

With the integer $m=1,2,3(\neq 0)$ and relative permittivity, ϵ_r is given by the equation where C_0 is free space speed of light, and ϵ_{eff} is the effective permittivity of the substrate. This expression is for resonant modes in which surface current is mostly longitudinal, more complex resonance patterns are obtained for higher-order modes on wide lines.

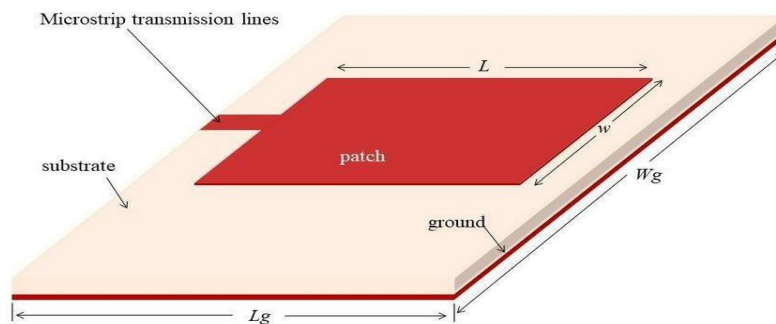


Fig2.6:RectangularPatch

The lines of surface current correspond, respectively, to the TM_{100} and the TM_{010} the TM_{110} for an equivalent square shaped cavity having perfect magnetic conductor (PMC) sidewalls.

2.4.2.2 Circular Patches:

Circular patches were reported to lose energy by radiation and thus provide large-quality factors than rectangular patches. The resonant frequency is determined by assuming that a perfect wall (PMC) extends under the edges of the patch. Fringing fields are taken into account by defining effective resonator radius a_e which is slightly larger than the physical radius (a).

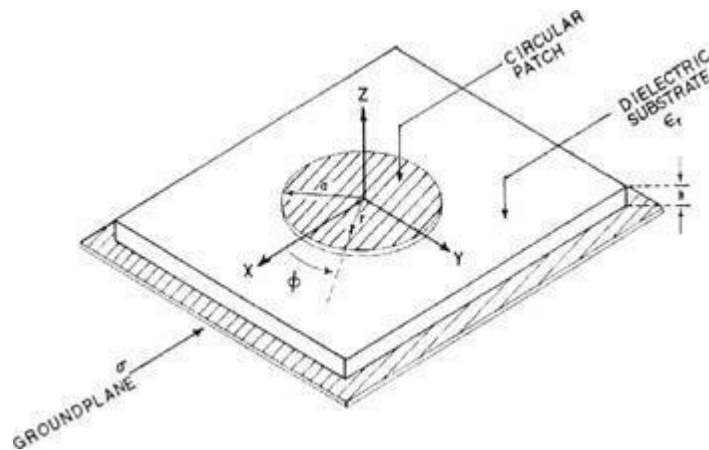


Fig2.7: Circular patch

2.4 Feeding Techniques:

Microstrip patch antennas can be fed by a variety of methods. These methods can be classified into two categories: contacting and non-contacting. In the contacting method, the RF power is fed directly to the radiating patch using a connecting element such as a microstripline. In the non-contacting scheme, electromagnetic field coupling is done to transfer power between the microstrip and the radiating patch. The four most popular feed techniques used are the microstrip line, coaxial probe (both contacting schemes), aperture coupling, and proximity coupling (both non-contacting schemes).

2.4.1 Microstrip Line Feed:

In this type of feed technique, a conducting strip is connected directly to the edge of the Microstrip patch. The conducting strip is smaller in width as compared to the patch and this kind of feed arrangement has the advantage that the feed can be etched on the same substrate to provide a planar structure.

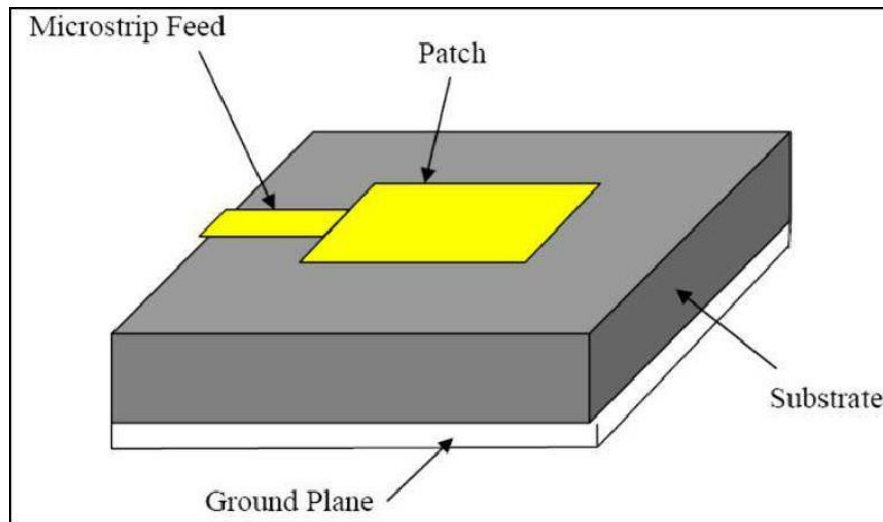


Fig 2.8 Microstrip line feed

The purpose of the inset cut in the patch is to match the impedance of the feed line to the patch without the need for any additional matching element. This is achieved by properly controlling the inset position. Hence this is an easy feeding scheme since it provides ease of fabrication and simplicity in modeling as well as impedance matching. However as the thickness of the dielectric substrate being used, it increases surface waves and spurious feed radiation also increases, which hamper the bandwidth of the antenna. The feed radiation also leads to undesired cross-polarized radiation.

2.4.2 Coaxial Feed:

The Coaxial feed or probe feed is a very common technique used for feeding microstrip patch antennas. As seen from Figure-2.9, the inner conductor of the coaxial connector extends through the dielectric and is soldered to the radiating patch, while the outer conductor is connected to the ground plane.

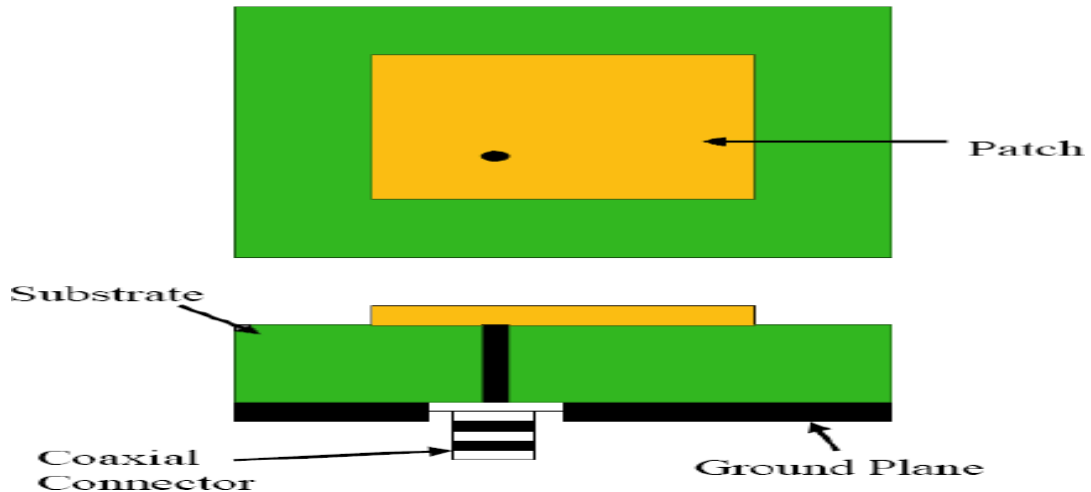


Fig2.9: Probe-fed Rectangular Microstrip Patch Antenna

The main advantage of this type of feeding scheme is that the feed can be placed at any desired location inside the patch in order to match with its input impedance. This feed method is easy to fabricate and has low spurious radiation. However, a major disadvantage is that it provides narrow bandwidth and is difficult to model since a hole has to be drilled in the substrate and the connector protrudes outside the ground plane, thus not making it completely planar for thick substrates ($h > 0.02\lambda_0$). Also, for thicker substrates the increased probe length makes the input impedance more inductive, leading to matching problems. It is seen above that for thick dielectric substrate, which provides broad bandwidth; the microstrip line feed and the coaxial feed suffer from numerous disadvantages.

2.4.3 Aperture Coupled Feed:

In this type of feed technique, the radiating patch and the microstrip feed line are separated by the ground plane. Coupling between the patch and the feed line is made through a slot or an aperture in the ground plane.

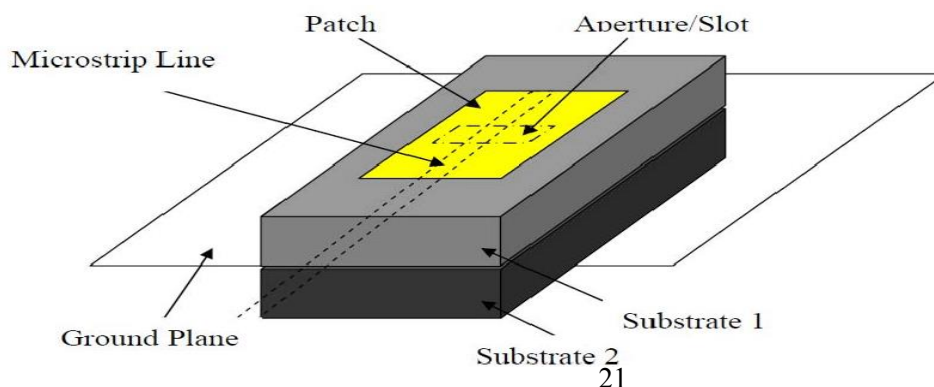


Fig2.10: Aperture-coupled feed

The coupling aperture is usually centered under the patch, leading to lower cross-polarization due to the symmetry of the configuration. The amount of coupling from the feed line to the patch is determined by the shape, size, and location of the aperture. Since the ground planes separate the patch and the feed line, spurious radiation is minimized. The major disadvantage of this feed technique is that it is difficult to fabricate due to multiple layers which also increases the antenna thickness. This feeding scheme also provides a narrow bandwidth.

2.4.4 Proximity Coupled Feed:

This type of feed technique is also called as the electromagnetic coupling scheme. Two dielectric substrates are used such that the feed line is between the two substrates and the radiating patch is on top of the upper substrate. The main advantage of this feed technique is that it eliminates spurious feed radiation and provides very high bandwidth (as high as 13%), due to the overall increase in the thickness of the microstrip patch antenna. This scheme also provides choices between two different dielectric media, one for the patch and one for the feed line to optimize the individual performances.

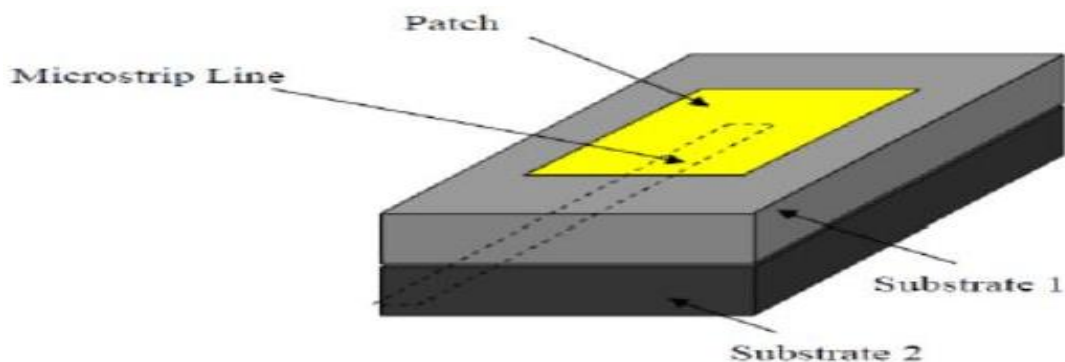


Fig2.11 Proximity-coupled Feed

2.5 Methods of Analysis:

There are many methods of analysis for microstrip antennas. The most popular models are the transmission-line, cavity, and full-wave (which include primarily integral equations/Moment Method). The transmission-line model is the easiest of all, it gives good physical insight, but is less accurate and it is more difficult to model coupling. Compared to the transmission-line model, the

cavity model is more accurate but at the same time more complex. However, it also gives good physical insight and is rather difficult to model coupling, although it has been used successfully.

The full-wave models are very accurate, very versatile, and can treat single elements, finite and infinite arrays, stacked elements, arbitrarily shaped elements, and coupling. However, they are the most complex models and usually give less physical insight. The rectangular patch is by far the most widely used configuration. It is very easy to analyze using both the transmission-line and cavity models, which are most accurate for thin substrates. We begin with the transmission-line model because it is easy to illustrate.

2.5.1 Transmission-Line Model:

The transmission-line model is the easiest of all but it yields the least accurate results and it lacks versatility. Basically the transmission-line model represents the microstrip antenna by two slots, separated by a low-impedance transmission line of length L .

2.5.1.1 Fringing effects:

The dimensions of the patch are finite along the length and width: the fields at the edges of the patch undergo fringing. The amount of fringing is a function of the dimensions of the patch and the height of the substrate. For the principal E -plane (XY-plane) fringing is a function of the ratio of the length of the patch L to the height of the substrate (L/h) and the dielectric constant of the substrate. Since for microstrip antennas $L/h \gg 1$, fringing is reduced. The same applies for the width.

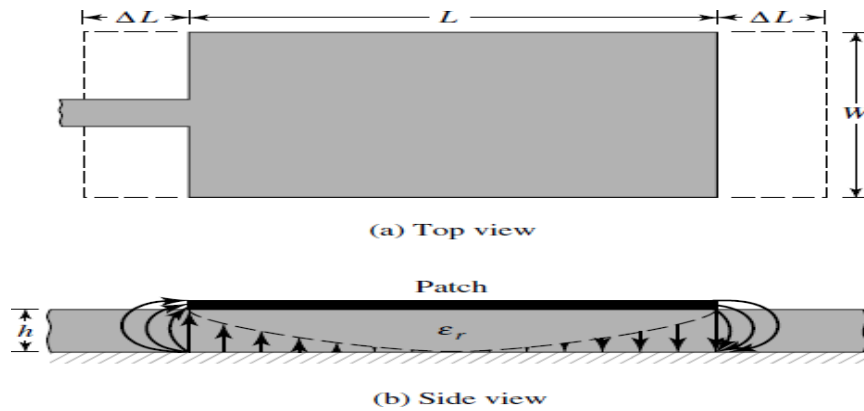


Fig 2.12: Physical and effective lengths of rectangular microstrip patch

The above figures show the non-homogeneous line of two dielectrics, typically the substrate and air. Most of the electric field lines reside in the substrate and parts of some lines exist in the air. As $W/h \gg 1$ and $\epsilon_r \gg 1$ the electric field lines concentrate mostly in the substrate. Fringing, in this case, makes the microstrip line look wider electrically compared to its physical dimensions. Since some of the waves travel in the substrate and some in air, an effective dielectric constant $\epsilon_{r\text{eff}}$ is introduced to account for fringing and the wave propagation in the line is shown in Figure 2.12. The effective dielectric constant has values in the range of $1 < \epsilon_{\text{eff}} < \epsilon_r$. The effective dielectric constant is also a function of frequency, as the frequency of operation increases, most of the electric field lines concentrate in the substrate.

2.6.1.2 Effective Length, Resonant Frequency, and Effective Width:

Because of the fringing effects, electrically the patch of the microstrip antenna looks greater than its physical dimensions. The dimensions of the patch along its length have been extended on each end by a distance, which is a function of the effective dielectric constant ϵ_{reff} and the width-to-height ratio (W/h) is given. Since the length of the patch has been extended by ΔL on each side, the effective length of the patch is now

$$L_{\text{eff}} = L + 2\Delta L$$

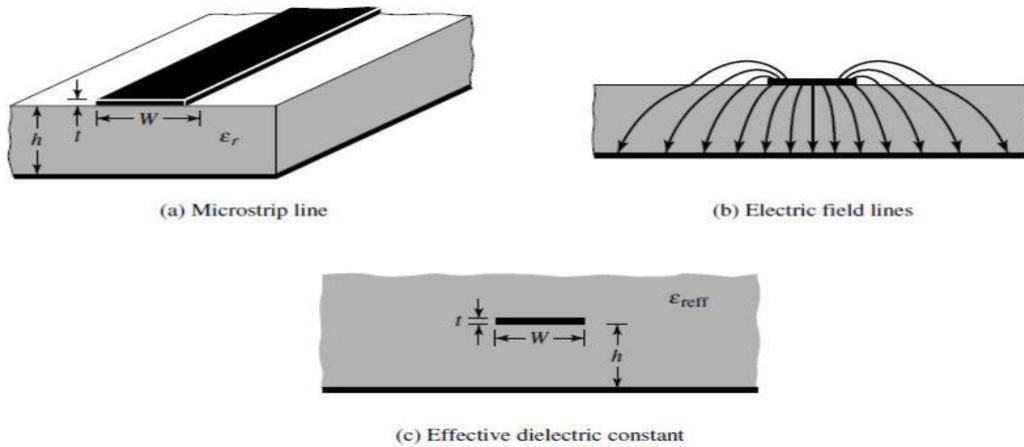


Fig2.13 Microstrip line and its electric field lines and effective dielectric constant geometry.

2.6.2 Cavity Model:

Although the transmission line model discussed in the previous section is easy to use, it has some inherent disadvantages: Specifically, it is useful for patches of rectangular design and it ignores field variations along the radiating edges. These disadvantages can be overcome by using the cavity model. A brief overview of this model is given below. In this model, the interior region of the dielectric substrate is modeled as a cavity bounded by electric walls on the top and bottom. The basis for this assumption is the following observations for thin substrates:

- Since the substrate is thin the fields in the interior region do not vary much in the z -direction, i.e., normal to the patch.
- The electric field is directed only in the z -direction, and the magnetic field has only the transverse components H_x and H_y in the region bounded by the patch metallization and the ground plane. This observation provides for the electric walls at the top and the bottom.

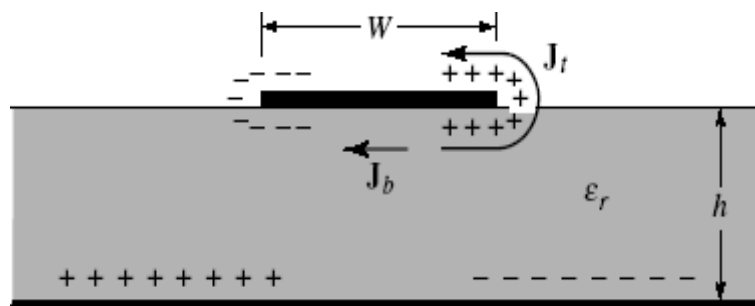


Fig2.14: Chargedistributionand current densitycreationon the microstrip patch

When the microstrip patch is provided power, a charge distribution is seen ontheupperand lowersurfacesofthepatchandatthebottomofthegroundplaneasshowninfigure-2.14thischargedistributioncontrolledbytwomechanisms-anattractivemechanisms and arepulsivemechanism.

Theattractivemechanismisbetweentheoppositechargesonthebottomsideof the patch and the ground plane, which helps in keeping the charge concentrationintact at the bottom surface of the patch, which causes pushing of some charges fromthebottom,tothetopofthepatch.thebottomofthepatch.Thepropulsivemechanism is between the like charges. As a result of this charge movement, currentsflowat the top and bottom surfaceof thepatch

The cavity model assumes that the height to width ratio(i.e. the height of thesubstrate and width of the patch) is very small and as a result of this the attractivemechanism dominates and causes most of the charge concentration and the current tobe below of the patch surface. Much less current would flow on the top surface of theratio further decreases, the current on the top surface will be almost equal to zero,whichwouldnotallowthecreationofanytangentialmagneticfieldcomponentstothe patchedges.Hence,foursidewallscouldbemodeledasperfectlymagneticconductingsurfaces.

Thisimpliesthatthemagneticfieldsandtheelectricfielddistributionbeneath the patch would not be disturbed. However, in practice, a finite width toheight ratio would be there and this would not make the tangential magnetic fields tobe completely zero, but they being very small, the side walls could be approximatelytobe perfectlymagneticconducting.

Since the wall of the cavity, as well as the material within it, is lossless, thecavity would not radiate and its input impedance would be purely reactive. Hence, inorder to account for radiation and a loss mechanism, one must introduce a radiationresistance R_R and a loss resistance R_L .

2.7CircularlyPolarizedMicrostripPatchAntennas:

2.7.1 Types of Circularly Polarized microstrip Patch antenna:

A microstrip patch is one of the most widely used radiators for circular polarization. Figure 2.15 shows some patches, including square, circular, equilateral triangular, ring, and elliptical shapes which are capable of circular polarization operation. However, square and circular patches are widely utilized in practice. A single patch antenna can be made to radiate circular polarization if two orthogonal patch modes are simultaneously excited with equal amplitude and 90° out of phase with sign determining the sense of rotation. Two types of feeding schemes can accomplish in the task. The first type is dual-orthogonal feed, which employs an external power divider network. The other is a single point feed for which an external power divider is not required.

2.7.1.1 Dual-Orthogonal Fed circularly Polarized microstrip Patch antenna:

The patch is usually square or circular. The dual-orthogonal feeds excite two orthogonal modes with equal amplitude but in-phase quadrature. Several power divider circuits that have been successfully employed for CP generation include the quadrature hybrid, the ring hybrid, the Wilkinson power divider, and the Function power splitter. The quadrature hybrid splits the input into two outputs with an equal magnitude but 90° out of phase. However, breed a quarter wavelength line in one of the output arms to produce a 90° phase shift at the two feeds.

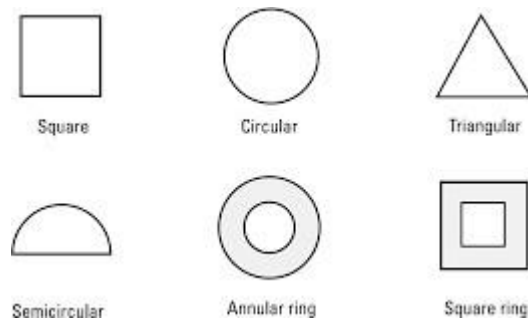


Fig2.15: Various types of circularly polarized microstrip patch antennas

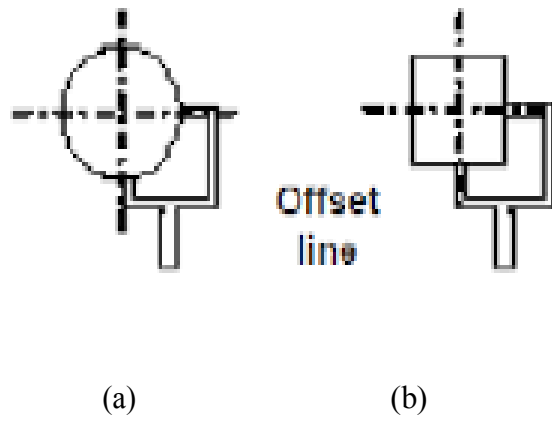


Fig 2.16: Typical configurations of dual-fed circularly Polarized microstrip Antennas:
a) circular patch(b)square patch

2.7.1.2 Singly Fed Circularly Polarized Microstrip Patch Antenna:

Typical configurations for a singly fed CP microstrip antenna are shown in the sheet. A single point feed patch capable of producing CP radiation is very desirable in situations where it is difficult to accommodate dual-orthogonal feeds with a power divider network.

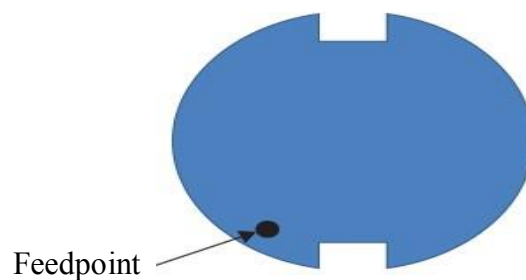


Fig 2.17: Typical configurations of singly fed circularly polarized microstrip antenna (a) Circular Patch

Because a patch with single-point feed generally radiates linear polarization, in order to radiate CP, it is necessary for two orthogonal patch modes with equal amplitude and in-phase quadrature to be induced. Perturbation configurations for generating CO operate on the principle of detuning degenerate modes of the circular patch by perturbation some shown in figure 2.17. The fields of a singly fed patch can be resolved into orthogonal degenerate modes and. Proper perturbation sets will detune frequency response of mode 2 such that at the opening frequency of the axial ratio rapidly degrades while the input match remains acceptable.

Circular polarization can also be obtained from a single-point-fed square or the circular patch on normally biased ferrite substrate, as shown in figure 2.17. It has been demonstrated that a singly fed patch radiates both left-hand circularly polarized (LHCP) and right-hand circularly polarized (RHCP) at the same level and polarity of bias magnetic field however LHCP and RHCP have different resonant frequencies. At the same operating frequency, the polarization can be reversed by reversing the polarity of

the bias field. The axial ratio bandwidth is found to be larger than the impedance bandwidth. The radiation efficiency is 70%.

Dual circular polarization has also been achieved using a singly fed triangular or pentagonal microstrip antenna. A triangular patch radiates CP at dual frequencies, f_1 and f_2 , with the separation ratio depending on the aspect ratio b/a . RHCP can be changed to LHCP at each frequency by moving the feed location into Γ_2 from Γ_4 to Γ_3 . The aspect ratio b/a is generally very close to unity, hence, a triangular patch is almost equilateral. A pentagonal patch in figure 2.17, with the aspect ratio c/a as a design parameter, also behaves in a similar manner. It radiates RHC when the feed point.

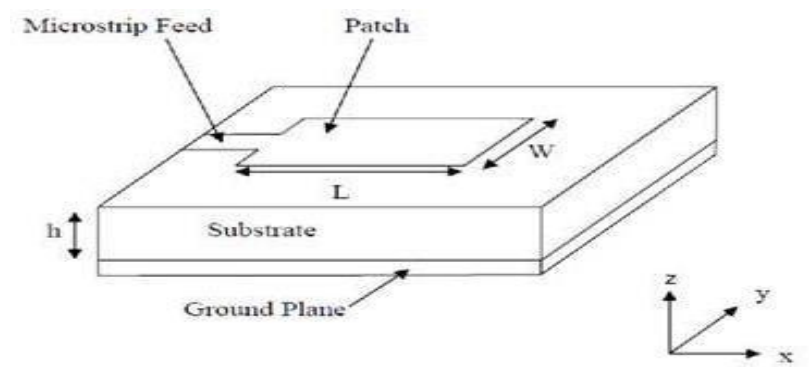


Fig 2.18: Geometry of a rectangular patch antenna on an anisotropically biased substrate

2.8 Advantages and Disadvantage:

Microstrip patch antennas are increasing in popularity for use in wireless applications due to their low-profile structure. Therefore they are extremely compatible with embedded antennas in handheld wireless devices such as cellular phones, pagers, etc. The telemetry and communication antennas on missiles need to be thin and conformal and are often in the form of Microstrip patch antennas. Another area where they have been used successfully is in Satellite communication.

- Lightweight and low volume
- Low profile planar configuration which can be easily made conformal to host surface
- Low Fabrication cost, hence can be manufactured in large quantities
- Supports both, linear as well as circular polarization.
- It can be easily integrated with microwave integrated circuits (MIC).
- Capable of dual and triple frequency operations

- Mechanically robust when mounted on rigid surfaces
- Microstrip patch antennas suffer from more drawbacks as compared to conventional antennas

Some of their major disadvantages are given below:

- Narrow bandwidth
- Low efficiency
- Low Gain
- Extraneous radiation from feeds and junctions
- Poor end-fire radiator except for tapered slot antennas
- Low power handling capacity
- Surface wave excitation

Microstrip patch antennas have a very high antenna quality factor (Q). It represents the losses associated with the antenna where a large Q leads to narrow bandwidth and low efficiency. Q can be reduced by increasing the thickness of the dielectric substrate. But as the thickness increases, an increasing fraction of the total power delivered by the source goes into a surface wave. This surface wave contribution can be counted as an unwanted power loss since it is ultimately scattered at the dielectric bends and causes degradation of the antenna characteristics. Other problems such as lower gain and lower power handling capacity can be overcome by using an array configuration for the elements.

2.9 Applications:

Microstrip antennas have found applications in telemetry, satellite communication, and various military radar systems. Operating in the 1 to 10 GHz frequency range. It is mainly due to advantages like low profile and ease of integrating the microstrip antenna with the solid-state receiving or transmitting module. This opens up the possibility of building large antenna array systems with each element being an active individually controlled element. Applications of microstrip antennas are tabulated below.

Table 2.1: Various applications of Microstrip antenna

Aircraft	Radarcommunications, Navigationlandingsystem
Missiles	Radar, Telemetry
Satellites	Communicationdirect broadcastTV
Ships	Radarcommunication navigation

2.9.1 Mobileandsatellitecommunicationapplication:

Mobile communication requires small low-cost low profile antennas. Microstrippatch antenna meets all Requirements and various types of microstrip antennas havebeen designedfor use in mobile communication systems.In the case of satellitecommunication,circularlypolarizedradiationpatternsarerequiredandcanberealiz edusingeither asquareorcircular patch with one ortwo feed points.

2.9.2 GlobalPositioningSystemapplications:

Nowadays microstrip patch antennas with a substrate having high permittivitisinteredmaterialareusedfortheglobalpositioningsystem.Thisantennasurecir cularly polarized very compact and quite expensive due to its positioning. It isexpectedthatmillionsofGPSreceiverswillbeusedbythegeneralpopulationforlandvehicl eaircraft andmaritimevessels to find thereposition accurately

2.9.3 RadioFrequencyIdentification(RFID):

RFID in different areas like mobile communication, logistics, manufacturing,transportation, andhealthcareRFIDsystemsongsfrequencies between 30Hzand5.8

GHzdependingonitsapplicationsRFIDsystemisatagortransponderandatransceiver.

2.9.4 WorldwideInteroperabilityforMicrowaveAccess(WiMax):

The IEEE 802.16 Standard is known as WiMax. It can reach up to a 30-mileradius theoretically and data rate 70Mbps. MPA generates three resonant modes at 2.7, 3.3 and 5.3 GHz, and can, therefore, be used in WiMax compliant communication equipment. Radar Application: Radar gun is used for detecting moving targets such as people and vehicles. It demands a low profile, lightweight antenna subsystem, the microstrip antennas are an ideal choice. The fabrication technology based on photolithography enables the bulk production of microstrip antenna with a repeatable performance at a lower cost in a lesser time frame as compared to the conventional antennas. Rectenna Application: Rectenna is a rectifying antenna, a special type of antenna that is used to directly convert microwave energy into DC power. Rectenna is a combination of four subsystems i.e. Antenna, or rectification filter, Rectifier, post rectification filter. In the rectenna application, it is necessary to design an antenna with very high directive characteristics to meet the demands of long-distance links. Since the aim is to use the rectenna to transfer DC power through wireless links for a long distance, this can only be accomplished by increasing the electrical size of the antenna.

2.9.5 Telemedicine Application:

In the telemedicine application antenna is operating at 2.45 GHz. Wearable microstrip antenna is suitable for Wireless Body Area Network (WBAN). The proposed antenna achieved a higher gain and front to back ratio compared to the other antennas, in addition to the semi-directional radiation pattern which is referred over the omnidirectional pattern to overcome unnecessary radiation to the user's body and satisfies the requirement for on-body and off-body applications. An antenna having a gain of 6.7 dB and an F/B ratio of 11.7 dB and resonates at 2.45 GHz is suitable for Telemedicine applications.

2.9.6 Medicinal Application:

It is found that in the treatment of malignant tumors the microwave energy is said to be the most effective way of inducing hyperthermia. The design of the particular radiator which is to be used for this purpose lightweight, easy in handling, and to be rugged. Only the path radiator fulfills these requirements. The initial designs for the Microstrip radiator for inducing hyperthermia were based on the printed dipole

s and annular rings which were designed on S-band. And later on, the design was based on the circular microstrip disk at L-band. There is a simple operation that goes on with the instrument; two coupled Microstriplines are separated with a flexible separation which is used to measure the temperature inside the human body.

3 Ultra-Wideband Antenna

3.1 INTRODUCTION:

Ultra-wideband also is known as UWB, ultra-wideband, and the ultra band is a radio technology that can use a very low energy level for short-range, high-bandwidth communications over a large portion of the radio spectrum. UWB has traditional applications in non-cooperative radar imaging. Most recent applications target sensor data collection, precision locating, and tracking applications. Unlike the spread spectrum, UWB transmits in a manner that does not interfere with conventional narrowband and carrier wave transmission in the same frequency band.

Ultra-Wideband (UWB) communication systems have the promise of very high bandwidth, reduced fading from multipath, and low power requirements. For our project, we designed a UWB antenna for a handheld communications device with a bandwidth of 225 to 400 MHz, a voltage standing wave ratio (VSWR) of less than 1.5 to 1, and an efficiency of greater than 75 percent. The antenna had to be resistant to body effects, which means that if the communications unit is put up to the user's head or put on a large metal surface, that the radiation pattern will not be greatly affected. Our antenna also had to be small enough to fit on the communication device, which was ten inches high, by three inches wide, by one inch thick.

Ultra-wideband is a technology for transmitting information spread over a large bandwidth (>500 MHz): this should, in theory, and under the right circumstances, be able to share spectrum with other users. Regulatory settings by the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) in the United States intend to provide efficient use of radio bandwidth while enabling high-data-rate personal area network (PAN) wireless connectivity, long-range, low-data-rate applications, and radar and imaging systems.

Ultra-wideband was formerly known as pulse radio, but the FCC and the International Telecommunication Union Radio communication Sector (ITU-R) currently define UWB as an antenna transmission for which emitted signal bandwidth exceeds the lesser of 500 MHz or 20% of the arithmetic center frequency. Thus, pulse-based systems—where each transmitted pulse occupies the UWB bandwidth (or an aggregate of at least 500 MHz of the narrow-band carrier; for example, orthogonal frequency-division multiplexing (OFDM) can access the rules. Pulse repetition rates may be either low or

very high. Pulse-based UWB spectrum and radar and imaging systems tend to use low repetition rates (typically in the range of 1 to 100 mega pulses per second). On the other hand, communication systems favor high repetition rates (typically in the range of one to two Giga pulses per second), thus enabling short-range gigabit-per-second communications systems. Each pulse in a pulse-based UWB system occupies the entire UWB bandwidth. This allows UWB to reap the benefits of relative immunity to multipath fading, unlike carrier-based systems which are subject to deep fading and inter-symbol interference. However, both systems are susceptible to inter symbol interference.

A significant difference between conventional radio transmissions and UWB is that conventional systems transmit information by varying the power level, frequency, and/or phase of a sinusoidal wave. UWB transmission transmits information by generating radio energy at specific time intervals and occupying large bandwidth, thus enabling pulse-position or time modulation. The information can also be modulated on UWB signals (pulses) by encoding the polarity of the pulse, its amplitude, and/or by using orthogonal pulses. UWB pulses can be sent sporadically at relatively low pulse rates to support time or position modulation, but can also be sent at rates up to the inverse of the UWB pulse bandwidth. Pulse-UWB systems have been demonstrated at channel pulse rates in excess of 1.3 Giga pulses per second using a continuous stream of UWB pulses (Continuous Pulse UWB or C-UWB), supporting forward error correction encoded data rates in excess of 675 Mbit/s.

A valuable aspect of UWB technology is the ability of a UWB radio system to determine the "time of flight" of the transmission at various frequencies. This helps overcome multipath propagation, as at least some of the frequencies have a line-of-sight trajectory. With a cooperative symmetric two-way metering technique, distances can be measured to high resolution and accuracy by compensating for local clock drift and stochastic inaccuracy.

Another feature of pulse-based UWB is that the pulses are very short (less than 60 cm for a 500 MHz-wide pulse, less than 23 cm for a 1.3 GHz-bandwidth pulse) so most signal reflections do not overlap the original pulse, and there is no multipath fading of narrowband signals. However, there is still multipath propagation and inter-pulse interference to fast-pulse systems, which must be mitigated by coding techniques.

3.2 History and Background:

The term "Ultra-wideband" has several similar meanings such as impulse, carrier-free baseband, and large relative bandwidth radio or radar signals. The concept of Ultra-wideband technology is not new. The first pulse-based UWB spark Gap radio was developed by Guglielmo Marconi in late 1800 which was used to transmit Morse Code for several years. However, in early 1900, these radios were forbidden to use in many applications due to their strong power emission and interference with other narrowband radio systems, which were developed in the early 1900s.

In the late 1960s, UWB technology gained a lot of interest because of its use in the form of impulse radar in the military areas. During this era, significant research efforts were conducted by researchers on different aspects of Ultra-Wideband technology. In 1964 Hewlett Packard and Tektronix Inc. produced the first time domain instruments for sub-nanosecond pulse diagnostics which was a huge step in UWB system design. Antenna designers such as Ramsey, Dyson, and Ross have started the design of antennas for UWB systems. Rumsey and Dyson developed logarithmic spiral antennas and Ross used impulse measurement techniques for the design of wideband radiating antenna elements. During 1960 to 1999, nearly a 40 year period, over 200 papers were published in accredited IEEE journals, and more than 100 patents were filed on topics related to UWB technology for radar and communication. Mainly, in the mid-1980s, the FCC allocated the Industrial Scientific and Medicine (ISM) bands for unlicensed wideband communication use. Owing to this revolutionary spectrum allocation, WLAN and Wireless Fidelity (Wi-Fi) have gone through tremendous growth. It also leads the communication industry to study the merits and implications of wide bandwidth communication.

At the beginning of 2002, UWB was reborn after FCC approved the UWB technology for commercial use. UWB systems have a number of advantages over traditional narrowband systems which makes it suitable for a variety of applications including radar measurements in the time domain resolution. Attributes such as low power consumption, negligible interference to narrowband systems, inherent immunity against detection and interception, strong penetration ability through different materials, etc. make UWB technology a good candidate for through-the-wall and ground-

penetrating applications. This short-range, high-throughput wireless technology can transmit with data rates of 252Mbps, and a data rate of 480Mbps is expected to be achieved in the near future.

3.3 BAND ASSIGNMENT:

The UWB band covers a frequency spectrum of 7.5GHz, i.e. from 3.1GHz to 10.6 GHz. Such a wide band can be utilized with two different approaches:

1. Single-band scheme
2. Multi-band scheme.

Information can be encoded in a UWB signal in various methods. The most popular signal modulation schemes for UWB systems include pulse-amplitude modulation (PAM), pulse-position modulation (PPM), binary phase-shift keying (BPSK), and so on.

UWB systems based on impulse radio are single-band systems. They transmit short pulses which are designed to have a spectrum covering the entire UWB band. Data is normally modulated using the PPM method and multiple users can be supported using the time-hopping scheme.

Generally in each frame, there will be a certain number of time slots allocated to some users; for each user, the UWB signal is transmitted at one specific slot which is determined by a pseudo-random sequence.

The other approach to UWB allocation is a multi-band scheme where the 7.5GHz UWB band is divided into several smaller sub-bands. Each sub-band has a bandwidth no less than 500MHz so as to conform to the FCC definition of the UWB multi-band scheme. Multiple access can be achieved by using frequency hopping. Here the UWB signal is transmitted over some sub-bands in a sequence during the hopping period and it hops from frequency to frequency at fixed intervals. At any time, only one sub-band is active for transmission while the so-called time-frequency hopping codes are exploited to determine the sequence in which the sub-bands are used.

Single-band and multi-band UWB systems present different features.

For a single-band scheme, the transmitted pulse has an extremely short duration, so a very fast switching circuit is required. On the other hand, the multi-band systems need a signal generator which is able to quickly switch between frequencies.

Single-band systems can achieve better multipath resolution compared to multiband systems because they employ discontinuous transmission of short pulses and normally the pulse duration is shorter than the multipath delay. While multiband systems may benefit from the frequency diversity across sub-bands to improve system performance.

Besides, multiband systems can provide good interference robustness and coexistence properties. For example, when the system detects the presence of the wireless systems, it can avoid the use of the sub-bands which share the spectrum with those systems.

Below Figure 3.1 presents an example of a time-hopping scheme. Each frame, are eight-time slots allocated to eight users, for each user the UWB signal is transmitted at one specific slot which determined by a pseudo-random sequence.

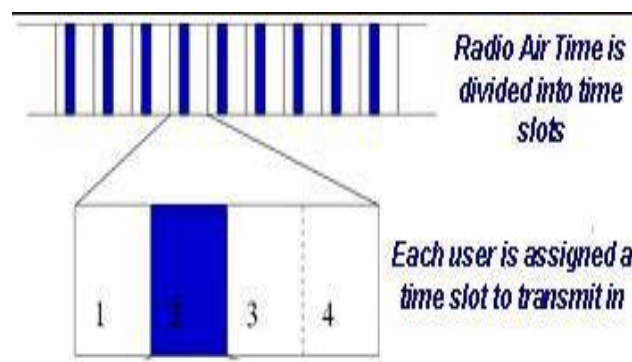


Fig3.1: Time hopping concept

other approach to UWB spectrum allocation is a multi-band scheme where the 7.5GHz UWB band is divided into several smaller sub-bands. Each sub-band has a bandwidth no less than 500MHz so as to conform to the FCC definition of UWB.

In a multi-band scheme, multiple access can be achieved by using frequency hopping. As exemplified in Figure 3.2, the UWB signal is transmitted over eight sub-bands in a sequence during the hopping period and it hops from frequency to frequency at fixed intervals. At any time, only one sub-band is active for transmission while the so-called time-frequency hopping codes are exploited to determine the sequence in which the sub-bands are used.

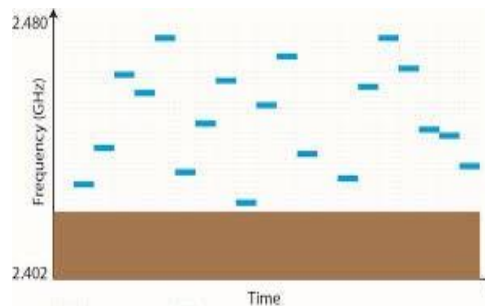


Fig 3.2 frequency hopping concept

Single-band and multi-band UWB systems present different features.

For a single-band scheme, the transmitted pulse signal has an extremely short duration, so a very fast switching circuit is required. On the other hand, the multi-band system needs a signal generator which is able to quickly switch between frequencies.

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Besides, multi-band systems can provide good interference robustness and co-existence properties. For example, when the system detects the presence of other wireless systems, it can avoid the use of the sub-bands which share the spectrum with those systems.

To achieve the same result, a single-band system would need to exploit notch filters. However, this may increase the system complexity and distort the received signal waveform.

3.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF UWB:

UWB technology can do things that the existing wireless networking systems cannot. Most importantly, UWB can handle more bandwidth-intensive applications like streaming video, than faster rates. UWB technology has a data rate of roughly 100 megabits per second for 802.11b (often referred to as Wi-Fi) which is the technology currently used in most wireless LANs; and 54 megabits per second for 802.11a, which is Wi-Fi at 5 MHz. either 802.11 or Bluetooth because it can send data at much Bluetooth has a data rate of about 1 megabit per second.

3.4.1 Low Power Consumption:

While transmitting data, UWB devices consume less than several tens of microwatts. This is a huge saving and the reason is that UWB transmits short impulses constantly instead of transmitting modulating waves continuously as most narrowband systems do. UWB chipsets do not require Radio Frequency (RF) to Intermediate Frequency (IF) conversion, Local Oscillators, mixers, and other filters. The low power consumption makes UWB ideal for use in battery-powered devices like cameras and cellphones.

3.4.2 Interference Immunity:

Due to low power and high-frequency transmission, UWB's aggregate interference is "undetected" by narrowband receivers. Its power spectral density is at or below the narrowband thermal noise floor. The low power level thus creates no irritating interferences to existing home wireless systems. According to its First Report and Order, the FCC requires that indoor UWB devices transmit only when operating with a receiver. A device connected to AC power is not constrained to reduce or conserve power by ceasing transmission, so this restriction will eliminate unnecessary emissions. Additional tests conducted by the FCC have also demonstrated conclusively that UWB devices may be permitted to operate under a proper set of standards without causing harmful interference to other operations.

3.4.3 High Security:

UWB'S white-noise like transmissions enhance security since receivers without the specific code cannot decode it. Different coding schemes, algorithms, and modulation techniques can be assigned to different users for data transmissions. Security can also be realized at the Media Access Control (MAC) level by allowing two devices to communicate with each other. Although currently, no formal security standard is available for UWB, the study group IEEE 802.15.3 has defined AES-128 symmetric security for payload protection and integrity.

3.4.4 Reasonable range:

IEEE 802.15.3a Study Group defined 10 meters as the minimum range at speed 100Mbps. However, UWB can go further. The Philips Company has used its Digital light processor (DLP) technology in the UWB device so it can operate beyond 45 feet at 50Mbps for four DVD screens.

3.4.5 Low Complexity, Low Cost:

The most attractive of UWB advantages are of low system complexity and cost. Traditional carrier-based technologies modulate and demodulate complex analog carrier waveforms. In contrast, UWB systems are made of "all-digital" with minimal RF or microwave electronics. The inherent RF simplicity in UWB design makes the systems highly frequency adaptive and enables them to be positioned anywhere within the RF spectrum. Also, home UWB wireless devices do not need transmitting power amplifiers. This is a great advantage over narrowband architectures that require amplifiers with significant power back-off to support high-order modulation waveforms for high data rates. The cost of placing UWB technology inside a consumer electronics device is \$20, compared with \$40 for 802.11b and \$65 for 802.11a.

3.5 Advantages of UWB:

UWB has a number of encouraging advantages that are the reasons why it presents a more eloquent solution to wireless broadband than other technologies.

Firstly, according to the Shannon-Hartley theorem, channel capacity is in proportion to bandwidth. Since UWB has an ultra-wide frequency bandwidth, it can achieve huge

capacity as high as hundreds of Mbps or even several Gbps with distances of up to 10 meters.

Secondly, UWB systems operate at extremely low power transmission levels. By dividing the power of the signal across a huge frequency spectrum, the effect upon any frequency is below the acceptable noise floor, as illustrated in Figure 3.

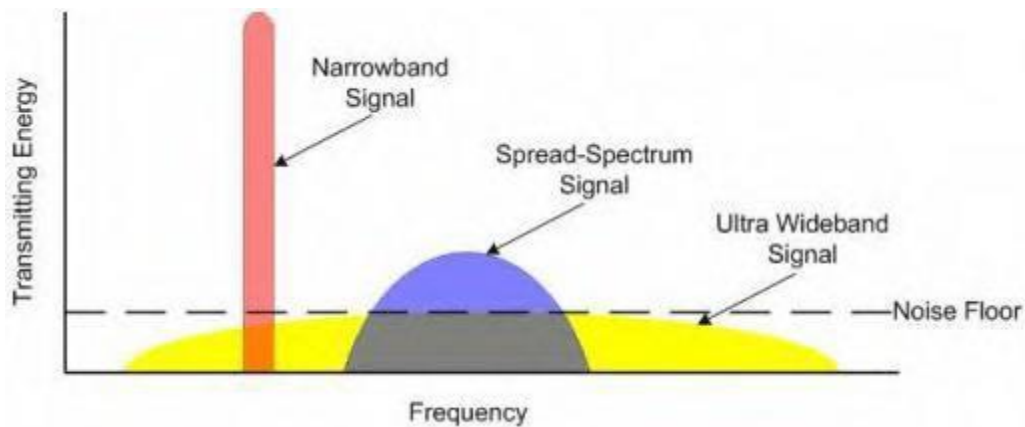


Fig 3.3: Ultra-wideband communications spread transmitting energy across wide spectrum of frequency.

For example, 1 watt of power spread across MHz of spectrum results in only 1 nanowatt of power into each hertz band of frequency. Thus, UWB signals do not cause significant interference to other wireless systems.

Thirdly, UWB provides highly secure and high reliable communication solutions. Due to the low energy density, the UWB signal is noise-like, which makes unintended detection quite difficult. Furthermore, the noise-like signal has a particular shape, contrast, real noise has no shape. For this reason, it is almost impossible for real noise to obliterate the pulse because interference would have to spread uniformly across the entire spectrum to obscure the pulse. Interference is only part of the spectrum reduces the amount of received signal, but the pulse still can be recovered to restore the signal. Hence UWB is perhaps the most secure means of wireless transmission ever previously available.

Lastly, the UWB system based on impulse radio features low cost and low complexity which arise from the essential baseband nature of the signal transmission. UWB does not modulate and demodulate a complex carrier waveform, so it does not require components such as mixers, filters, amplifiers, and local oscillators.

3.6 UWB Standards:

A standard is a precondition for any technology to grow and develop because it makes possible the wide acceptance and dissemination of products from multiple manufacturers with an economy of scale that reduces costs to consumers. Conformance to standards makes it possible for different manufacturers to create products that are compatible or interchangeable with each other.

In UWB matters, the IEEE is active in making standards. The IEEE 802.15.4a task group is focused on low rate alternative physical layer for WPANs. The technical requirements for 802.15.4a include low cost, low data rate (>250 kbps), low complexity, and low power consumption.

The IEEE 802.15.3a task group is aimed at developing high rate alternative physical layer for WPAN. 802.15.3a is proposed to support a data rate of 110 Mbps with a distance of 10 meters. When the distance is further reduced to 4 meters and 2 meters, the data rate will be increased to 200 Mbps and 480 Mbps, respectively. There are two competing proposals for 802.15.3a, i.e. the Direct Sequence UWB (DS-UWB) and the Multiband Orthogonal Frequency Division Multiplexing (MBOFDM).

DS-UWB proposal is the conventional impulse radio approach to UWB communication, i.e. it exploits short pulses that occupy a single band of several GHz for transmission. This proposal is mainly backed by a Free scale and Japanese NICT and its proponents have established their own umbrella group, namely, the UWB Forum.

DS-UWB proposal employs direct sequence spreading of binary data sequences for transmission modulation.

The concept of direct sequence spread spectrum (DSSS) is illustrated in Figure 3.4. The input data is modulated by a pseudo-noise (PN) sequence which is a binary sequence that appears random but can be reproduced at the receiver. Each user is assigned a unique PN code which is approximately orthogonal to those of other users. The receiver can separate each user based on their PN

code even if they share the same frequency band. Therefore, many users can simultaneously use the same bandwidth without significantly interfering with one another.

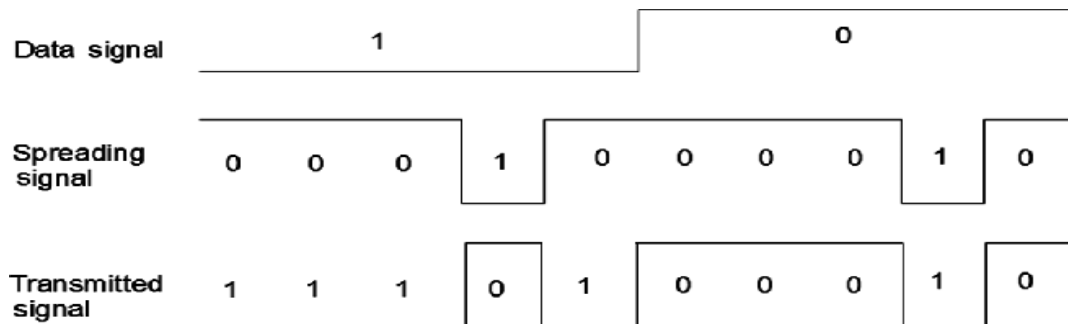


Fig3.4: Example of Direct sequence spread spectrum

The different achievable data rates are obtained by varying the convolution code rate and the spreading code length. The code length determines the number of chips duration used to represent one symbol. Hence, a shorter code length will lead to a higher data rate for a fixed error-correcting code rate.

The main advantage of DS-UWB is its immunity to the multipath fading due to the large frequency bandwidth. It is also flexible to adapt very high data rates in a very short distance.

However, there is also a technical challenge to DS-UWB. As shown in Table, the FCC defined a single band of 7.5GHz for UWB communications, but this 3.1GHz-10.6GHz band is broken down into low and high sub-bands. Thus, an efficient pulse shaping filter is required in order to comply with the various spectral masks proposed by different regulatory bodies.

Table 3.1: Proposed UWB band in the world

Region	UWB band
United States	Single Band: 3.1GHz-10.6GHz

Europe	<p>Low Band: 3.1GHz-4.8GHz</p> <p>High Band: 6GHz-8.5GHz</p>
Japan	<p>Low Band: 3.4GHz-4.8GHz</p> <p>High Band: 7.25GHz-10.25GHz</p>

MB-OFDM proposal is supported by Multi-Band OFDM Alliance (MBOA) which is comprised of more than 100 companies. MB-OFDM combines the multi-band approach together with the orthogonal frequency division multiplexing (OFDM) techniques.

OFDM is a special case of multicarrier transmission, where a single data stream is transmitted over a number of lower rate sub-carriers. Because the sub-carriers are mathematically orthogonal, they can be arranged in an OFDM signal such that the sidebands of the individual sub-carriers overlap, and the signals are still received without adjacent carrier interference. It is apparent that OFDM can achieve higher bandwidth efficiency compared with conventional multicarrier technique, as shown in figure 4

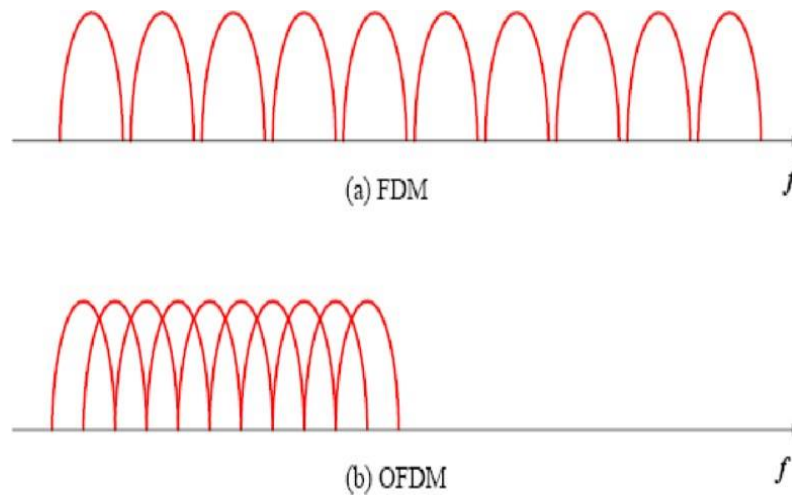


Fig3.5:OFDMtechniqueversusconventionalmulticarrier

technique

3.7UWBApplications:

Asmentionedearlierinthischapter,UWBofferssomeuniqueanddistinctiveproperties thatmakeit attractivefor variousapplications.

Firstly,UWBhas thepotentialforveryhighdataratesusingverylowpowerataverylimite drange,whichwillleadtotheapplicationswellsuitedforWPAN.Theperipheralconnectivityth roughcablelessconnectionstoapplications like storage, 10 devices, and wireless USB will improve the easeandvalueofusingPersonalComputers(PCs)andlaptops.Highdataratetransmissions between computers and consumer electronics like digital cameras,video cameras, MP3 players, televisions, personal video recorders, automobiles,andDVDplayerswillprovideanewexperienceinhomeandpersonalentertainme nt.

Secondly,sensors ofalltypesalsoofferanopportunityforUWBtoflourish. Sensor networks are comprised of a large number of nodes within ageographical area. These nodes may be static, when applied for securing thehome, tracking and monitoring, or mobile, if equipped on soldiers, firemen,automobiles, or robots in military and emergency response situations. The keyrequirementsforsensornetworksincludelowcost,lowpower,andmulti-functionality

which can be well met by using UWB technology. High data rate UWB systems are capable of gathering and disseminating or exchanging a vast quantity of sensory data in a timely manner. The cost of installation and maintenance can drop significantly by using UWB sensor networks due to being devoid of wires. This merit is especially attractive in medical applications because a UWB sensor network frees the patient from being shackled by wires and cables when extensive medical monitoring is required. In addition, with a wireless solution, the coverage can be expanded more easily and made more reliable.

Thirdly, positioning, and tracking is another unique property of UWB. Because of the high data rate characteristic in a short-range, UWB provides an excellent solution for an indoor location with a much higher degree of accuracy than a GPS. Furthermore, with an advanced tracking mechanism, the precise determination of the tracking of moving objects within an indoor environment can be achieved with an accuracy of several centimeters. UWB systems can operate in complex situations to yield faster and more effective communication between people. They can also be used to find people or objects in a variety of situations, such as casualties in a collapsed building after an earthquake, children lost in the mall, injured tourists in a remote area, firefighters in a burning building, and soon.

Lastly, UWB can also be applied to radar and imaging applications. It has been used in military applications to locate enemy objects behind walls and around corners on the battlefield. It has also found value in commercial use, such as rescue work where a UWB radar could detect a person's breath beneath the rubble, or medical diagnostics where X-ray systems may be less desirable.

UWB short pulses allow for very accurate delay estimates, enabling high definition radar. Based on the high ranging accuracy, intelligent collision-avoidance and cruise control systems can be envisioned. These systems can also improve airbag deployment and adapt suspension braking systems depending on road conditions. Besides, UWB vehicular radar is also used to detect the location and movement of objects near a vehicle.

3.8 MAIN APPLICATIONS OF UWB:

UWB can be used as a communication link in a sensor network. It can also create a security bubble around a specific area to ensure security. It is the best candidate to support a variety of applications such as:

WBAN APPLICATIONS:

The applications of wireless body area network (WBAN) in a medical environment may consist of sensors. A network of UWB sensors such as electrocardiogram (ECG), oxygen saturation sensor (SpO₂), and electromyography (EMG) can be used to develop a proactive and smart healthcare system. This can benefit the patient in chronic conditions and provide long-term health monitoring.

WPAN APPLICATIONS:

A wireless personal area network (WPAN) is a personal area network, a network for interconnecting devices centered on an individual person's workspace in which the connections are wireless. Wireless PAN is based on the standard IEEE 802.15 operating at 3.1-10.6 GHz.

Wi-Fi:

Wi-Fi uses radio waves for connection over distances up to around 91 meters, usually in a local area network (LAN) environment. Wi-Fi can be used to connect local area networks, to connect cell phones to the Internet to download music and other multimedia, to allow PC multimedia content to be streamed to the TV (Wireless Multimedia Adapter), and to connect video game consoles to their networks (Nintendo Wi-Fi Connection). 5.15-5.35 GHz and 5.725-5.825 GHz, are used by Wi-Fi devices.

Ultra-wideband (UWB) technology essentially enables the following wireless communication systems: -Short-range (up to 10 m), higher data-rates (up to 1 Gbits/s) applications such as the IEEE 802.15.3a (WPAN) standard operating at 3.1-10.6 GHz; -Long-range (up to 100m), lower data rates (up to 1 Mbits/s), e.g. wireless sensor networks operating at frequencies below 960 MHz.

4. Design of Monopole Antenna for UWB Applications

4.1 Introduction:

The UWB antenna should be consistent and predictable throughout the whole operation band. Examples include planarized and planar antennas. such as the Vivaldi antenna; volcano-smoke slot antennas; tulip-shaped monopole antennas; and many more. The tulip-shaped monopole antenna, for example, covers 2.55–32.5 GHz with fewer than -10 dB of reflection coefficient magnitude; hence, the operating band allocated by the FCC is entirely covered by this design. A few other designs also equal or approximate the FCC-allocated operating frequency band.

Some of the main features required for antennas for the application of UWB technology are as follows.

- It should have bandwidth ranging from 3.1 GHz to 10.6 GHz in which reasonable efficiency and satisfactory omnidirectional radiation patterns are necessary
- ultrawideband (UWB) techniques have drawn considerable attention due to the merits such as wide bandwidth, high data rate, and low cost.
- Although UWB communication system makes use of huge frequency bands, the permitted power spectral density of the UWB signal is rather limited to avoid interference with other systems

4.2 Design of UWB antenna element:

Fig.4.1 shows the design evolution of UWB antenna elements at different positions. Compared with the center-fed printed antenna with a rhombic slot (denoted as Ant. 1), good impedance matching over a wider frequency range can be achieved by adopting an offset microstrip-fed line (denoted as Ant. 2). This is due to the fact that the electromagnetic coupling between the feed line and the ground improves as the microstrip line is shifted from the center, and thereby enhances the impedance bandwidth of the antenna. The offset distance $D1$ has a significant influence on the impedance enhancement of the antenna element, and an optimum value $D1 = 8$ mm is selected in this design. The feed lines of Ant. 1 and 2 both have the same widths of 3 mm corresponding to 50- Ω characteristic impedance. Then a three-stage feed line is employed as an impedance transformer to adjust the impedance matching at 5-8 GHz (denoted as Ant. 3). Finally, an impedance bandwidth of larger than 3.1-10 GHz can be obtained to meet the bandwidth requirement for UWB operation.

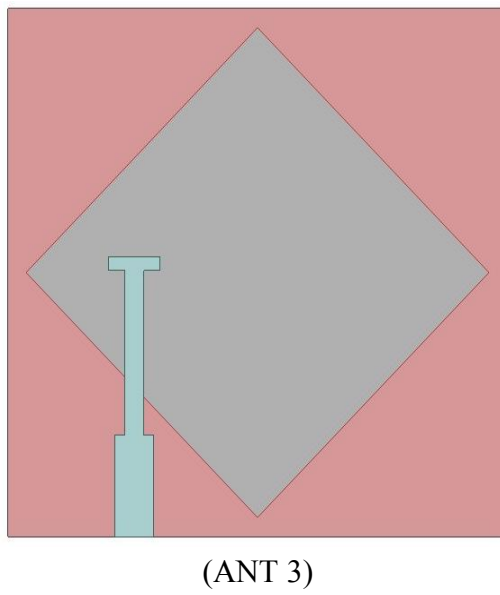
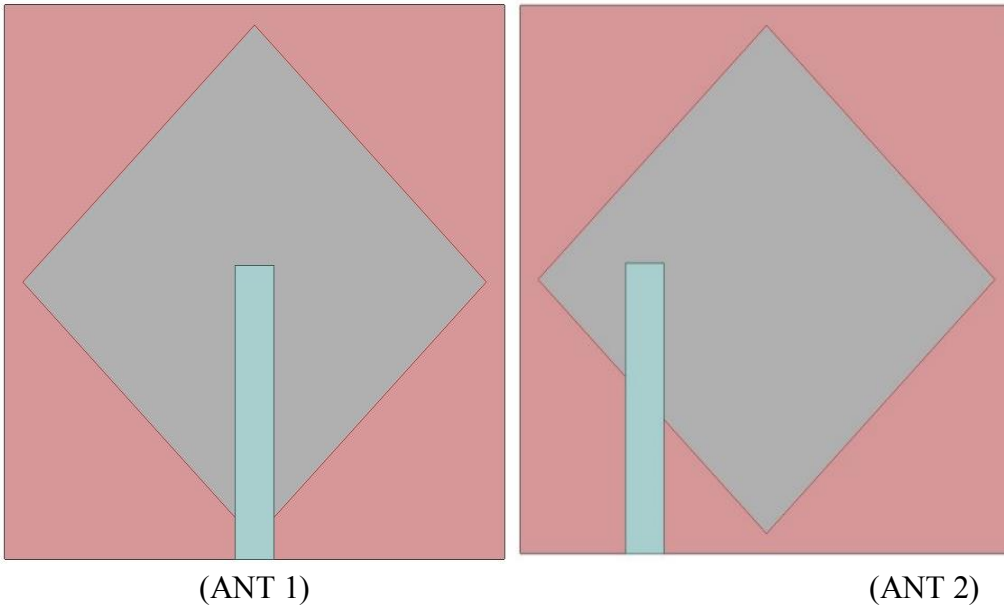


Fig 4.1 (ANT 1) center-fed line, (ANT 2) offset microstrip-fed line,(ANT3) three-stagefeed line

4.3 Results:

S11:

In this result, we simulate the antenna design at different positions. This is useful in selecting the desired position for the design.

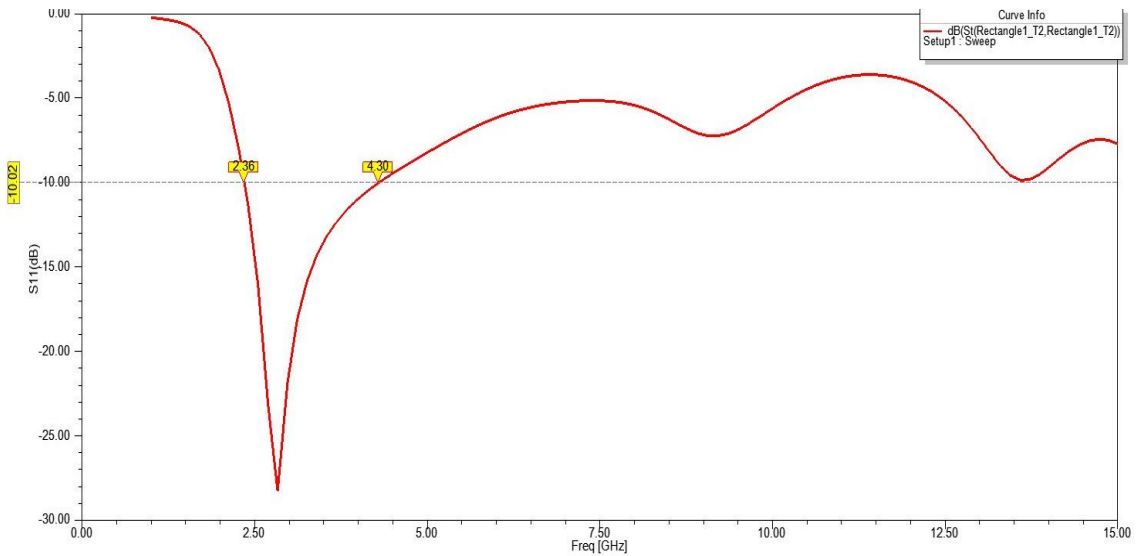


Fig 4.2: variation of return loss w.r.t frequency of ANT 1

From fig 4.2 we observed that center-fed printed antenna with a rhombic slot has very poor impedance matching over a wider frequency range.

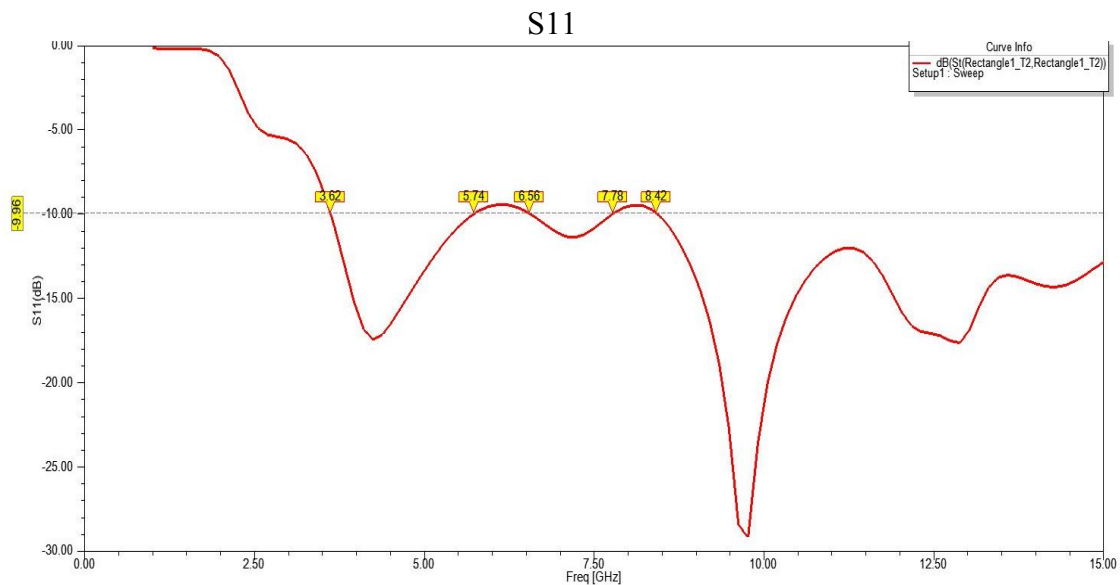


Fig 4.3: variation of return loss w.r.t frequency of ANT 2

From fig 4.3 we observed that compared with the centre-fed printed antenna with a rhombic slot (denoted as Ant. 1), good impedance matching over a wider frequency range can be achieved by adopting an offset microstrip-fed line (denoted as Ant. 2). This is due to the fact that the electromagnetic coupling between the feed line and the

ground improves as the microstrip line is shifted from the centre, and thereby enhances the impedance bandwidth of the antenna.

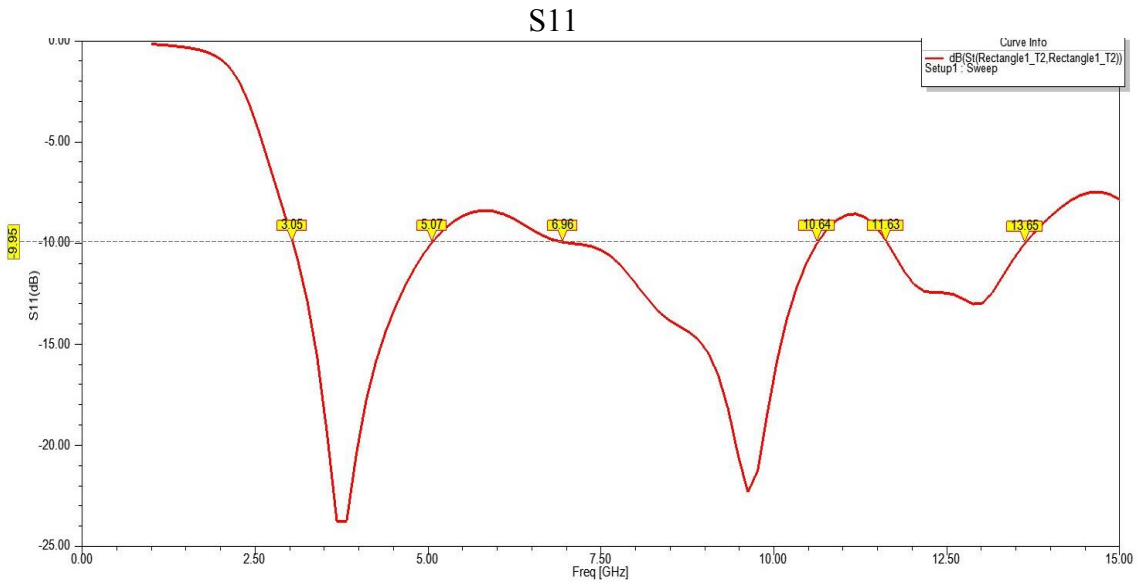


Fig 4.4: variation of return loss w.r.t frequency of ANT 3

From fig 4.4 a three-stage feed line is employed as an impedance transformer to adjust the impedance matching at 5-8 GHz (denoted as Ant. 3).

VSWR:

VSWR stands for Voltage Standing Wave Ratio and is also referred to as the Standing Wave Ratio (SWR). VSWR is a function of the reflection coefficient, which describes the power reflected from the antenna and is the ratio of the maximum to minimum voltage transmitted by the antenna.

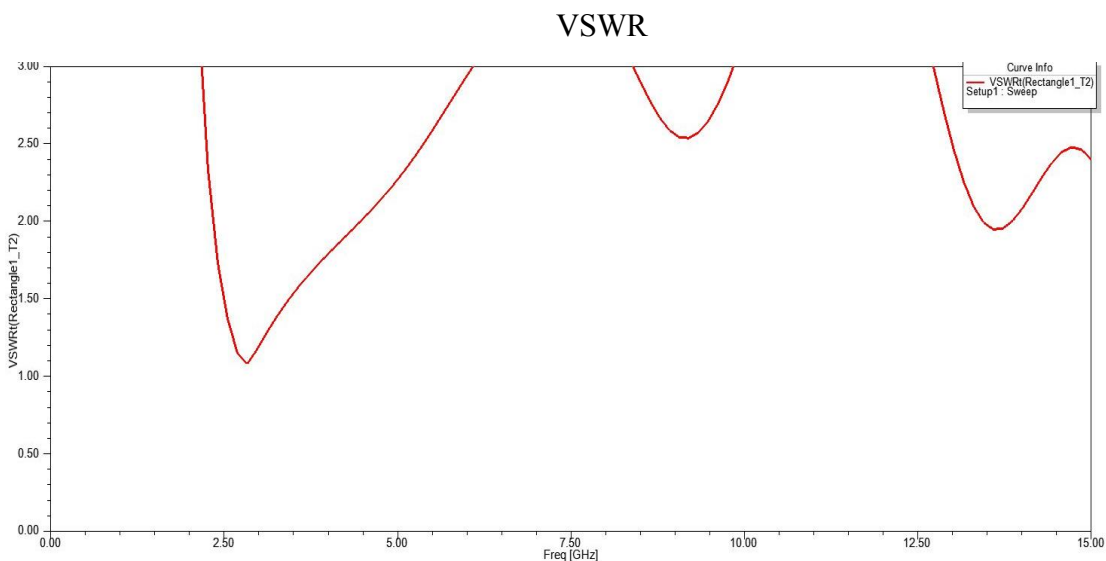


Fig 4.5: Variation of VSWR w.r.t frequency for ANT1

Fig:4.5 shows the simulated result of VSWR. For practical applications $VSWR \leq 2$ is acceptable. Here we can observe that some of the band is not less than or equal to 2.

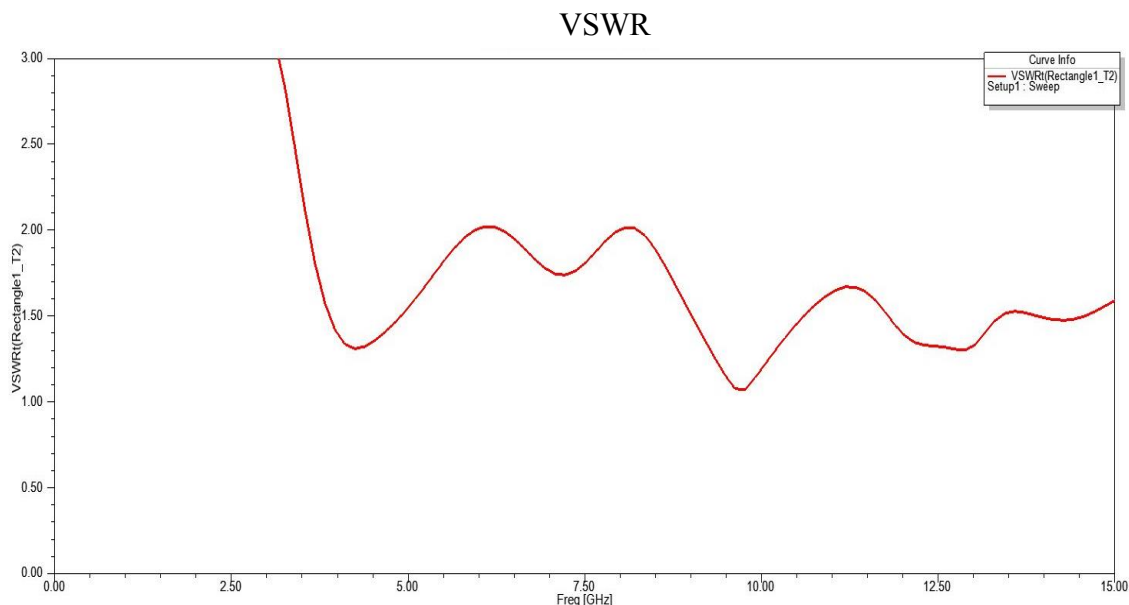


Fig 4.6: Variation of VSWR w.r.t frequency for ANT2

Fig:4.6 shows the simulated result of VSWR. Compare with the centre-fed printed antenna with a rhombic slot (denoted as Ant. 1), good VSWR over a wider frequency range can be achieved by adopting an offset microstrip-fed line (denoted as Ant. 2).

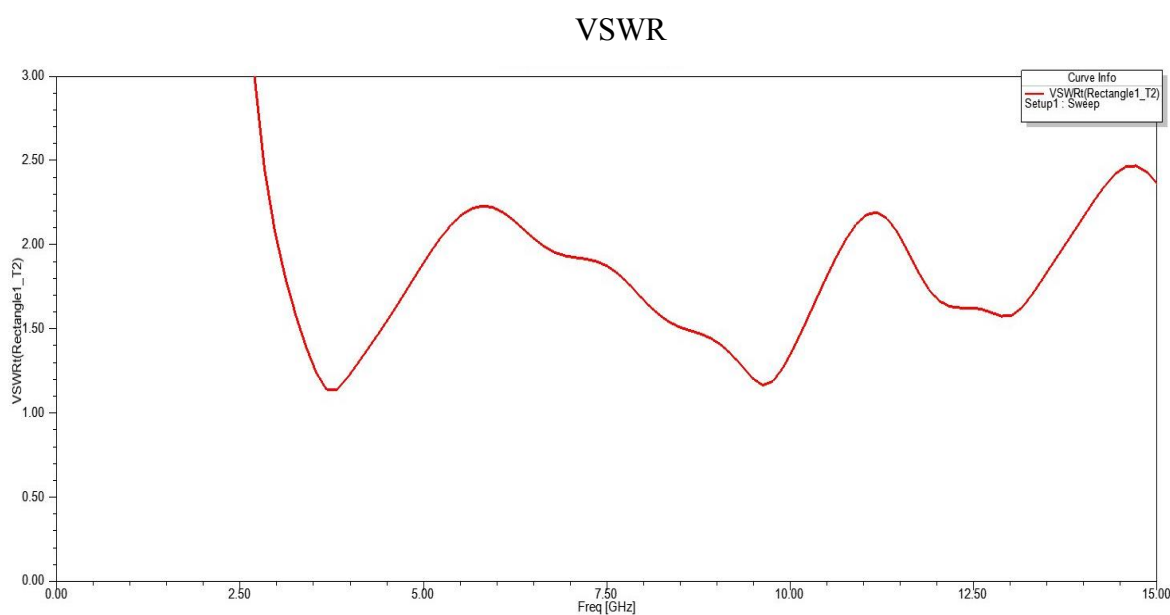
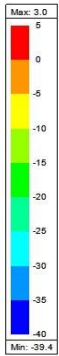


Fig 4.7: Variation of VSWR w.r.t frequency for ANT3

Fig:4.7 shows the simulated result of VSWR.

GAIN in dB:



Gain Plot 1

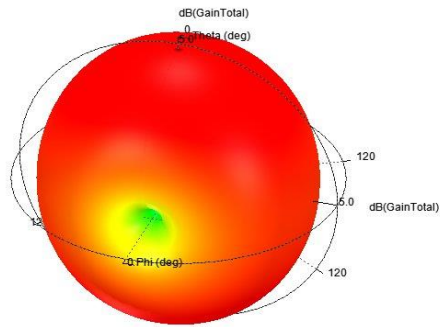
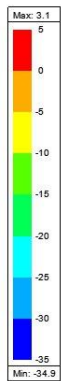


Fig 4.8 Gain in dB for ANT1



Gain Plot 1

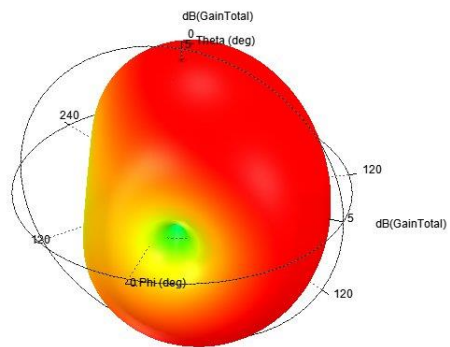
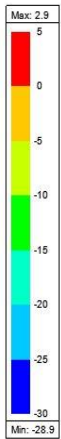


Fig 4.8 Gain in dB for ANT2



Gain Plot 1

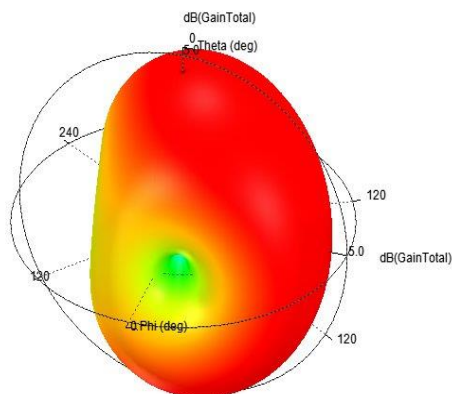


Fig 4.8 Gain in dB for ANT3

5. Design of MIMO Antenna for UWB Applications

5.1 Introduction:

In general, the design procedure for a band-notched antenna can be described as follows. A UWB antenna without a band-notched function is designed to have good impedance matching over the UWB, which is used as a reference antenna. Proposed resonant structures are added to the reference antenna to create notches at some specific frequencies. The dimensions of the resonance structures can be used to control the center frequencies and bandwidths of the notches. Different designs have been proposed to realize the band-notched characteristic for UWB planar monopole antennas. These include using parasitic elements, folded strips, split-ring resonators (SRRs), quarter wavelength tuning stubs, meander-ground structures, resonated cells on the coplanar-waveguide, fractal tuning stub, slots on the radiator or ground, and slots or folded-strip lines along the antenna feed line. However, most of these designs targeted at creating a single-notched band and only one design targeted at a triple-notched band using meander lines.

In this design two antenna elements placed perpendicular to each other to obtain polarization diversity, T shape strip used as decoupling structure. L shaped slits symmetrical to each other. Practically, the L shaped slits function as two parasitic elements and work as band stop filters. Then, the band-notched property is achieved.

5.2 Design Specifications:

The two essential parameters for the design of any microstrip patch antenna are:

1. Dielectric Constant of the Substrate (ϵ_r): The dielectric material applied for this design has a dielectric constant of 4.4. Use of a high dielectric constant can reduce the dimensions of the antenna. However, for the radiation modes most used such substrates result in elements, which are electrically small in terms of free-space wavelengths and consequently have relatively smaller bandwidths and low efficiencies.

2. Height of dielectric substrate (h): The height of the dielectric substrate selected here is 1.6 mm.

The essential parameters of the design are $\epsilon_r = 4.4$ and $h = 1.6$ mm

5.3 UWB MIMO antenna without T strip:

Design of a MIMO antenna with T shape is done using HFSS and is as follows and its geometric view is as shown in figure 5.1. Now we will see what happens if T strip not present in MIMO antenna. how it effects the performance of UWB MIMO antenna

5.3.1 Design of UWB MIMO antenna without T strip:

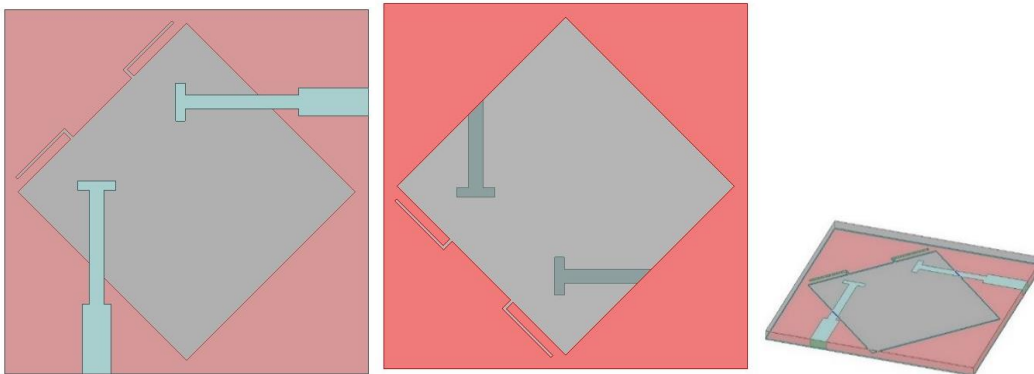


Fig 5.1(a) Top view of MIMO antenna Fig5.1(b) Bottom view of MIMO antenna Fig 5.1(c) Trimetric view of MIMO antenna

Fig. 5.1 illustrates the geometry of the band-notched UWB MIMO antenna. The designed antenna with an overall size of $38.5 \times 38.5 \text{ mm}^2$ is printed on an FR4 substrate with a thickness of 1.6 mm and a relative dielectric constant of 4.4. It consists of two orthogonal microstrip-fed lines, and a ground plane etched with a rhombic slot and a pair of L-shaped slits. Both the microstrip-fed lines at an offset distance from the center have three stages for impedance transforming. The ground plane is designed on the other side of the substrate. The slits etched on the ground are used to produce a notched band at 5.5 GHz. The numerical analysis and geometry refinement of the antenna structure were carried out by using electromagnetic simulation software HFSS from ANSYS. Fig 5.1(b) and Fig 5.1(c) are the bottom view and trimetric view of the antenna respectively.

Table 5.1

Parameters of UWB antenna without T shape

Design parameters	Dimensions(mm)
Ground length	38.5
Ground width	38.5
Substrate length	38.5
Substrate width	38.5
Substrate height	1.6
Diamond shape length	25.2
Diamond shape width	25.2
L shape parallel slit length	7.3
L shape perpendicular slit length	1.3
L shape slit width	0.3
Antenna element(lower) length	7.4
Antenna element(lower) width	3
Antenna element(middle) length	12
Antenna element(middle) width	1.5
Antenna element(top) length	1
Antenna element(top) width	1

There are some other important parameters which can manipulate the results. Here we discuss distance between elements in UWB band notch Antenna Structure. The distance from edge of Diamond shape ground corner point is 19.25mm, the distance from diamond shape edge to antenna element is 8mm.

5.3.2 Antenna Without T strip results:

S11

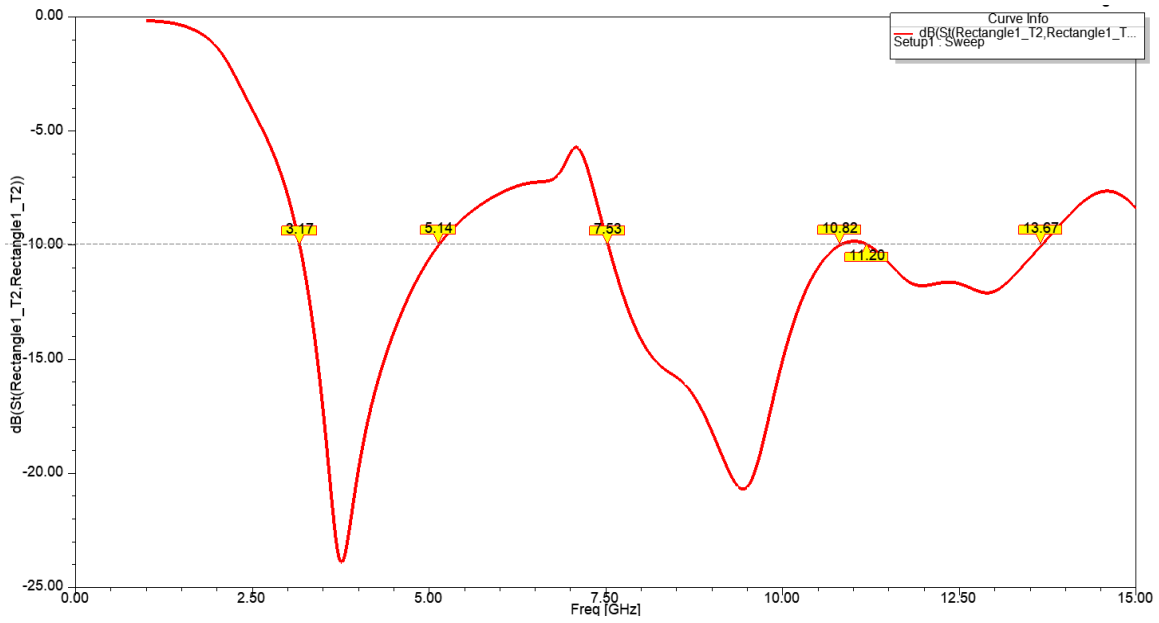


Fig 5.2: Returnloss(S11) variation w.r.t frequency without T strip

S12

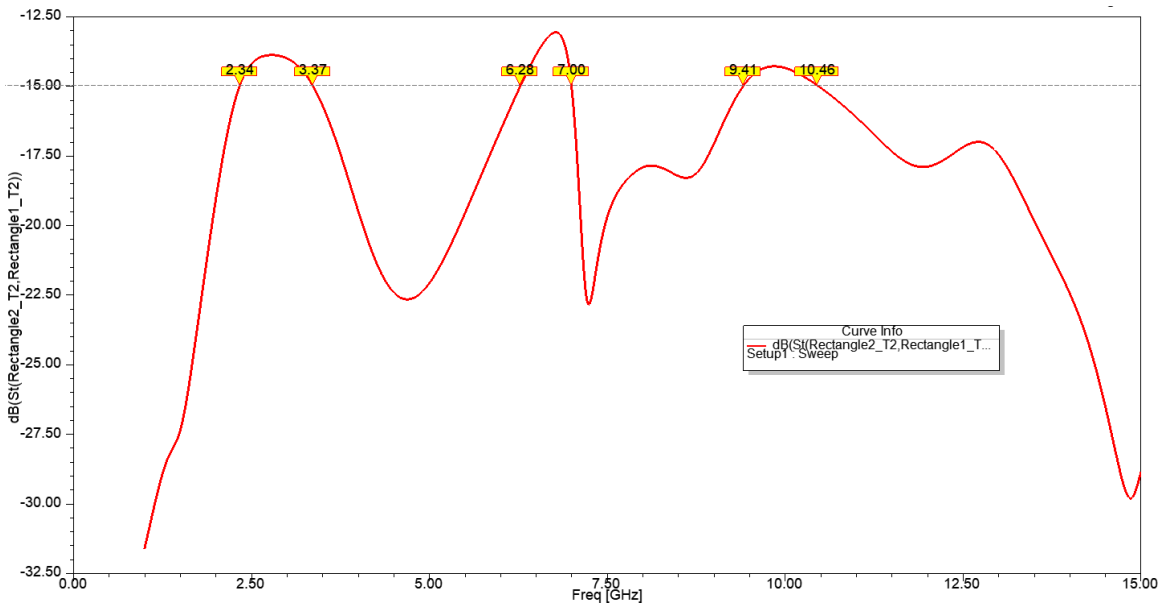


Fig 5.3: S12 variation w.r.t frequency without T strip

In above fig 5.2 we can see that UWB MIMO antenna rejecting the frequency band 5.14 to 7.53 GHz due to L shape slits on the ground. But in fig 5.3 we are seeing mutual

coupling curve. Mutual coupling is typically undesirable in MIMO antenna. In order to provide good MIMO antenna, we have to minimize the mutual coupling.

Surface current distribution:

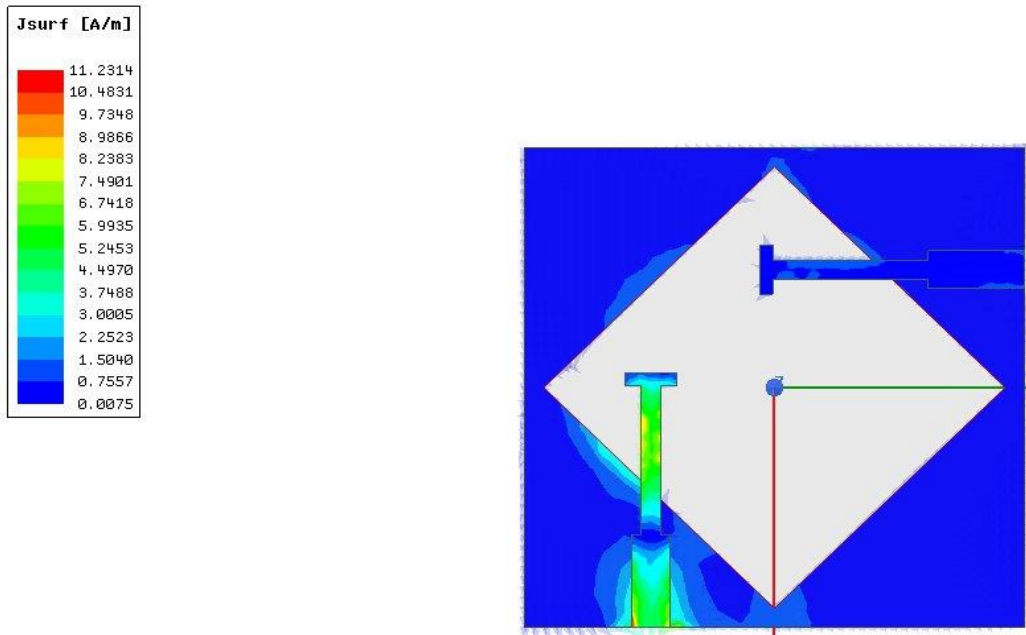


Fig5.4: Surface current distribution of antenna without T strip

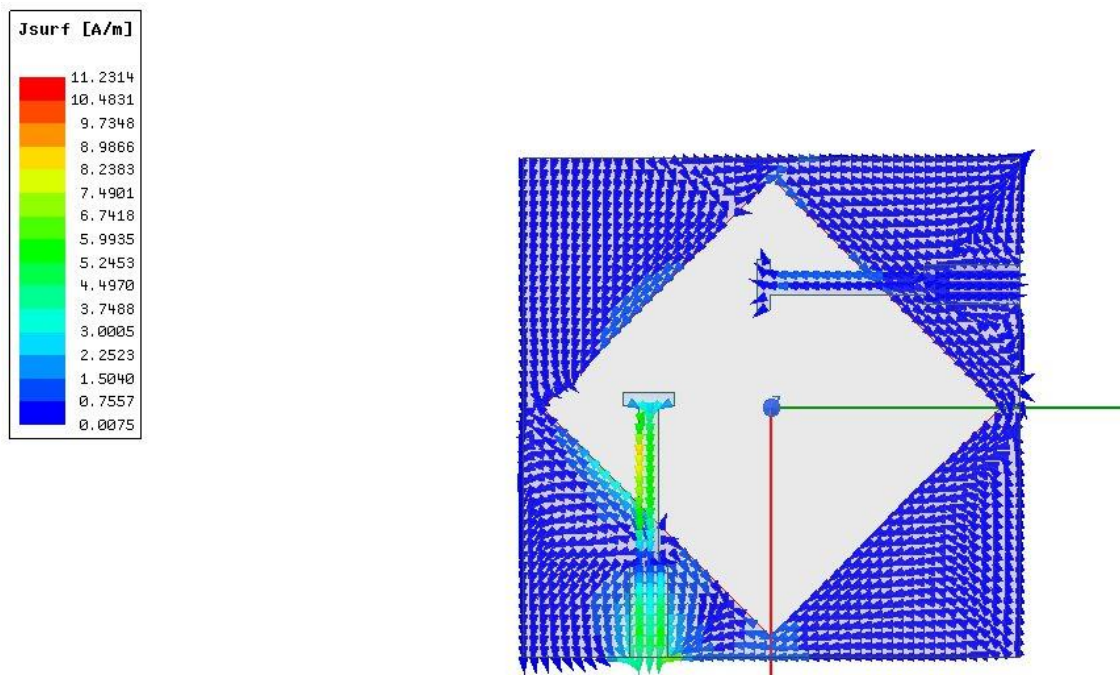


Fig 5.5: Vector current distribution of antenna without T strip

5.4 UWB MIMO antenna with T strip:

Design of a MIMO antenna with T shape is done using HFSS and is as follows and antenna geometric view is as shown in figure.

5.4.1 Design of UWB MIMO antenna with T strip:

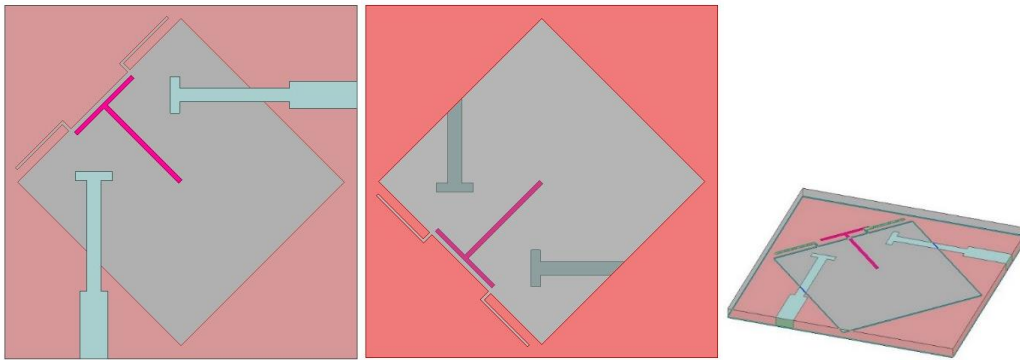


Fig 5.6(a) Top view of MIMO antenna Fig 5.6(b) Bottom view of MIMO antenna Fig 5.6(c) Trimetric view of MIMO antenna

Fig. 5.6 illustrates the geometry of the proposed band-notched UWB MIMO antenna. The designed antenna with an overall size of $38.5 \times 38.5 \text{ mm}^2$ is printed on an FR4 substrate with a thickness of 1.6 mm and a relative dielectric constant of 4.4. It consists of two orthogonal microstrip-fed lines, a parasitic T-shaped strip, and a ground plane etched with a rhombic slot and a pair of L-shaped slits. Both the microstrip-fed lines at an offset distance from the center have three stages for impedance transforming. The parasitic strip placed between the antenna elements plays an important role in isolation improvement. It consists of two major parts: a strip along the diagonal and the other perpendicular to the diagonal. The ground plane is designed on the other side of the substrate. The slits etched on the ground are used to produce a notched band at 5.5 GHz. The numerical analysis and geometry refinement of the antenna structure were carried out by using electromagnetic simulation software HFSS from ANSYS.

In order to explain the band-notched function of the proposed MIMO antenna structure, we make surface current distribution and field analysis and then apply an equivalent parallel circuit concept to give guidance to parameter optimizations. Fig 5.6(b) and Fig 5.6(c) are the bottom view and trimetric view of the antenna respectively.

The notch frequency and the high order resonant frequencies increase. An increase in the VSWR at notch frequency. The ability to reject the desired frequency, the L shaped slits used to define the band notch frequency and the T shape strip is helpful in decreasing the mutual coupling between antenna elements and increase the ECC. The antenna elements which are perpendicular to one another helps to obtain polarization diversity.

Table 5.2

Parameters of UWB MIMO antenna with T shape

Design parameters	Dimensions(mm)
T shape (perpendicular diamond shape) length	11.5
T shape (parallel to diamond shape) length	8.3
T shape width	0.5

Here we place the parasitic T strip between the antenna elements in such way that it can provide another path current flow to reduce mutual coupling. Table 2 shows dimensions of T strip. The Position of T strip also play important role in mutual coupling. There are some distances to consider while placing the T strip. From the point which antenna element cuts the diamond shape to origin of T shape is 12.35mm. The distance from plane side of diamond shape to origin of T shape is 12.6mm.

5.4.2 Simulation and Results of UWB MIMO antenna with T shape:

Parametric sweep results:

In the parametric sweep, we simulate the design of different values of a parameter. This is useful in selecting the desired parameter value for the design. By selecting the best results in the parametric sweep, with those parameter values, we will optimize for the best results.

We can create a notch at any frequency in the UWB range by introducing the L shaped slits on the ground of antenna that was designed previously and by varying the parameters of antenna along with the size and positioning of the slots.

L shape slit adjustment on MIMO antenna:

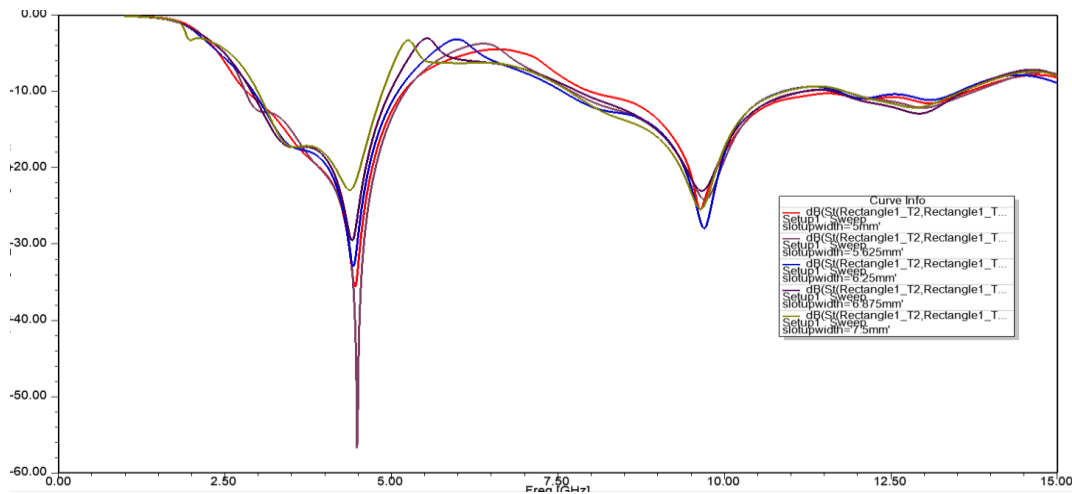


Fig 5.7: Variation of return loss w.r.t frequency for values of width of L shape slit on the ground

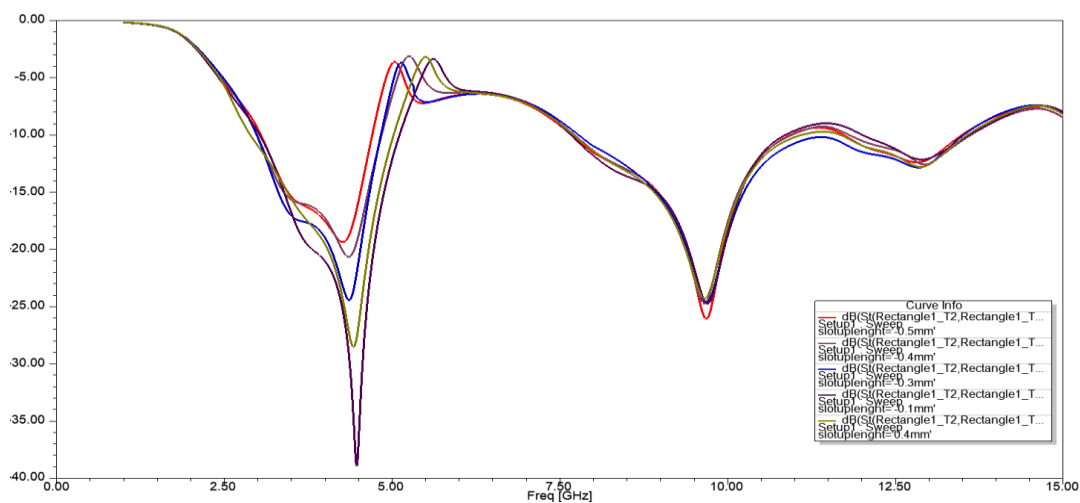


Fig 5.8: Variation of return loss w.r.t frequency for values of length of L shape slit on the ground.

In the fig 5.7 we vary the width from 5 mm to 7.5mm of L shape that is parallel to the diamond shape. this parametric sweep showing that in all cases it rejects the 5.15-5.85 GHz frequency band. In the fig 5.8 we vary the length from -0.5 to -0.1mm of L shape

slit that is parallel to the diamond. We can clearly state that in all cases it providing a band notch for 5.15-5.85 GHz band.

Antenna with T strip Results:

S11

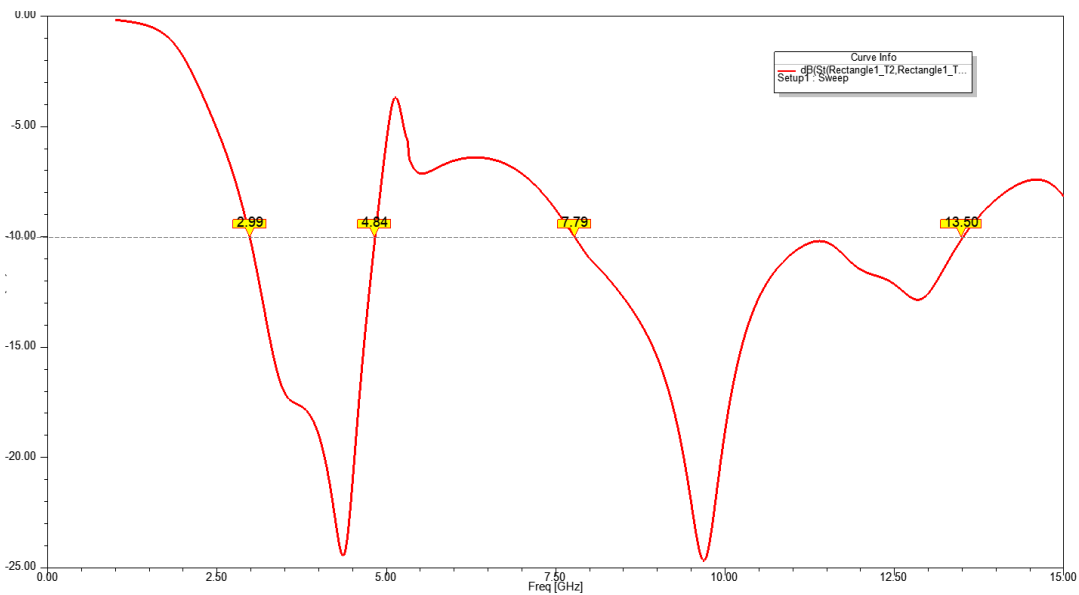


Fig5.9: return loss(s11) w.r.t frequencywith T strip

S12

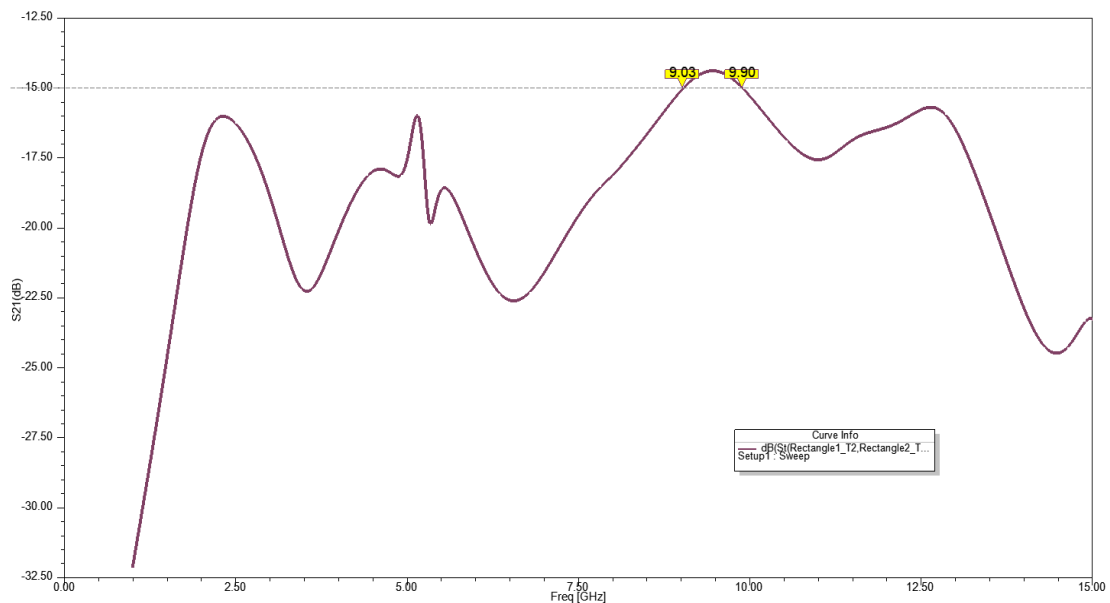


Fig 5.10: S12 w.r.t frequency with T strip

In fig 5.9 the S11 curve represents the return loss of UWB MIMO antenna. In the fig 5.4 the curve below -10 dB represents passing band. In range 4.84-7.79 GHz frequency the curve above -10 dB so we say that it rejecting the that frequency. In fig 5.10 S12 it showing mutual coupling curve is under 15dB. It providing low mutual coupling from

1 to 9.03 GHz. So, T shape acting as decoupling structure. Which we got better results when we compared S12 without T shape

Surface current distribution:

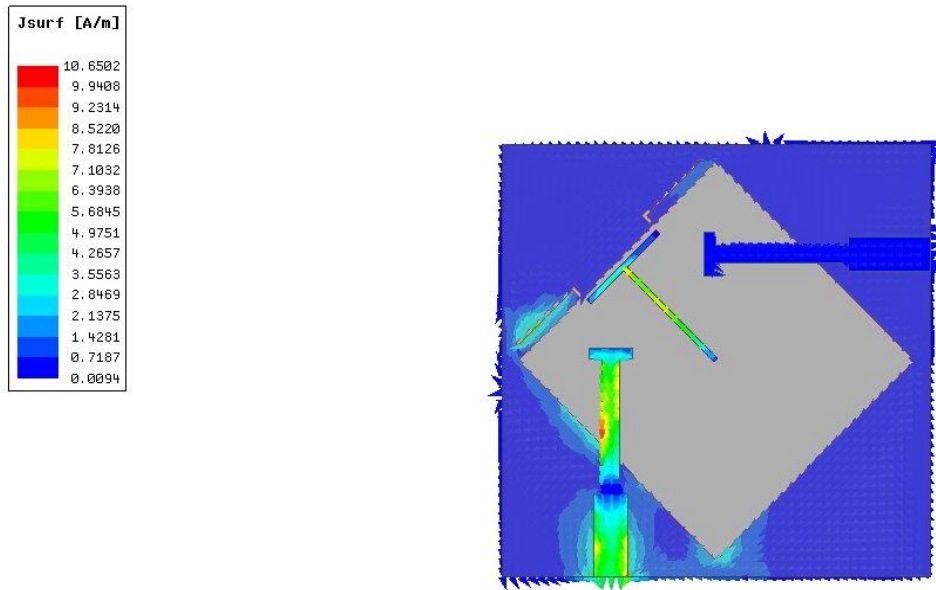


Fig 5.11: Magnitude surface current distribution

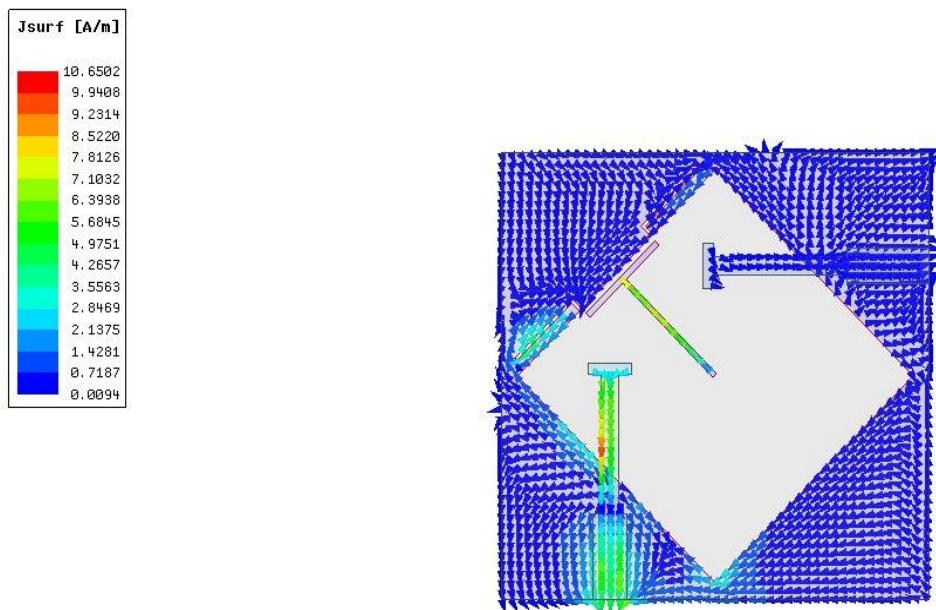


Fig 5.12: vector surface current distribution

VSWR:

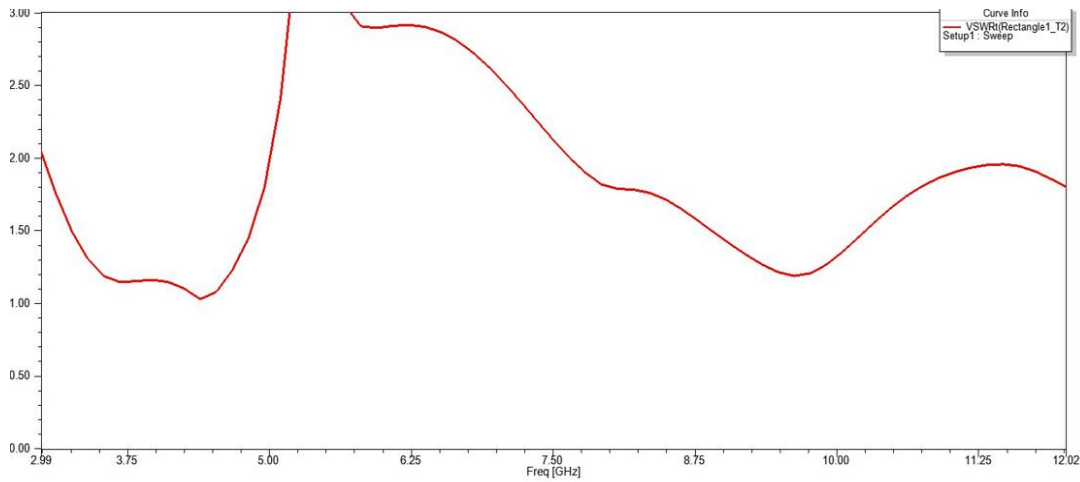


Fig5.13: Variation of VSWR w.r.t frequency

Fig 5.13 showing VSWR curve of UWB MIMO antenna with T strip. properly impedance matched antenna will have VSWR equal to one. The value of VSWR for the frequency 5.15 to 5.85 GHz is greater than 2. In that band return loss is more than -10dB.

Gain:

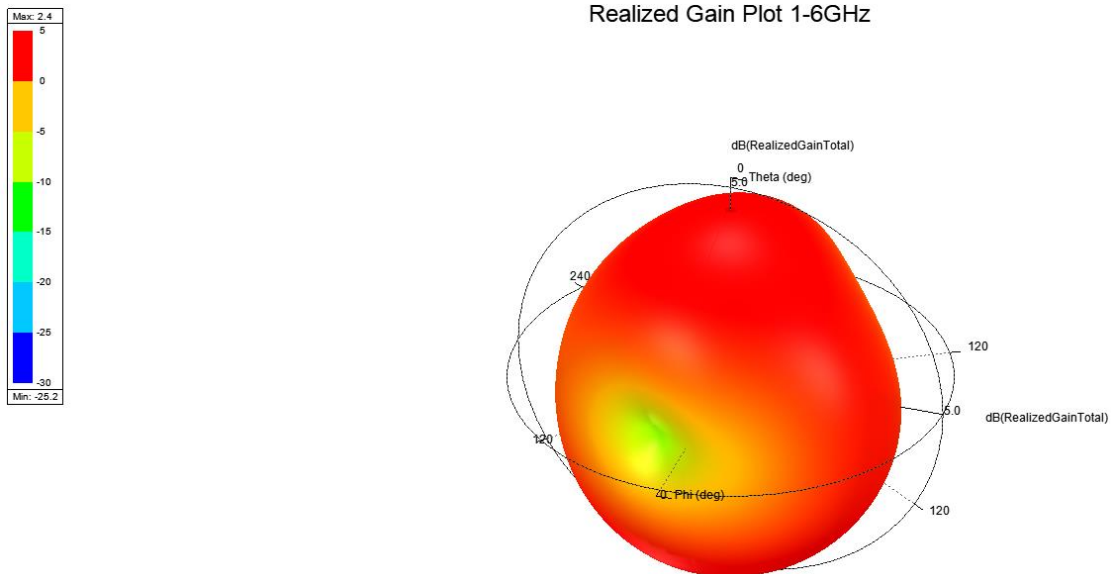


Fig 5.14: Gain of antenna with T strip

5.5 UWB MIMO antenna with SRR:

5.5.1 Split ring resonator introduction:

A split-ring resonator (SRR) is an artificially produced structure common to metamaterials. Their purpose is to produce the desired magnetic susceptibility (magnetic response) in various types of metamaterials up to 200 Terahertz. These media create the necessary strong magnetic coupling to an applied electromagnetic field, not otherwise available in conventional materials. For example, an effect such as negative permeability is produced with a periodic array of split ring resonators.

A single cell SRR has a pair of enclosed loops with splits in them at opposite ends. The loops are made of nonmagnetic metal like copper and have a small gap between them. The loops can be concentric, or square, and gapped as needed. A magnetic flux penetrating the metal rings will induce rotating currents in the rings, which produce their own flux to enhance or oppose the incident field (depending on the SRRs resonant properties). This field pattern is dipolar. The small gaps between the rings produce large capacitance values which lower the resonating frequency. Hence the dimensions of the structure are small compared to the resonant wavelength. This results in low radiative losses, and very high-quality factors.

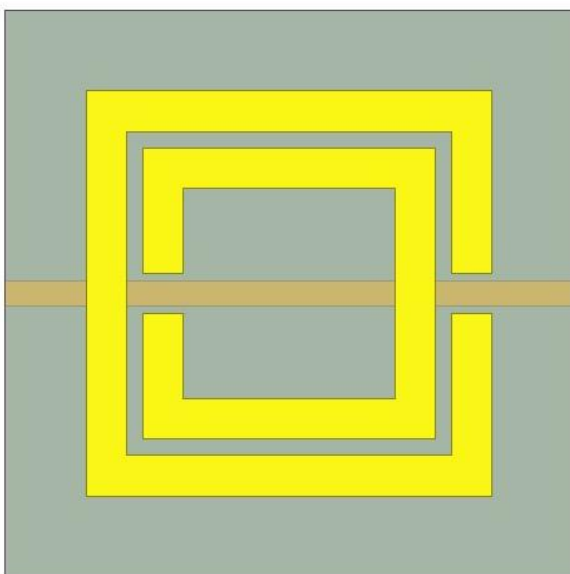


Fig 5.15: split ring resonator

5.5.2 Design of UWB MIMO antenna with SRR:

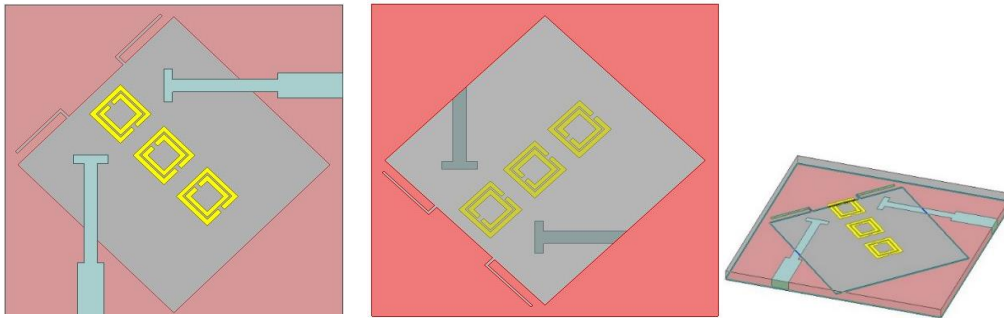


Fig 5.16 : (a) Top view (b) Bottom view (c) Trimetric view of MIMO antenna with SRR

This UWB MIMO antenna with SRR can easily be designed by removing the T strip from the MIMO antenna with T strip using simulation software HFSS from ANSYS. In this antenna structure, we obtain notch band characteristics, but mutual coupling is similar to the antenna elements of the UWB MIMO antenna with T strip. In designing the split ring resonator, there are mainly two steps: 1. Designing of the outer ring and 2. Designing of the inner ring. By adjusting the outer ring and inner ring width and length, we can make the split ring resonator a decoupling structure like a parasitic T strip, which provides an alternative path for surface current flow.

5.5.3 Antenna with SRR Results:

S11

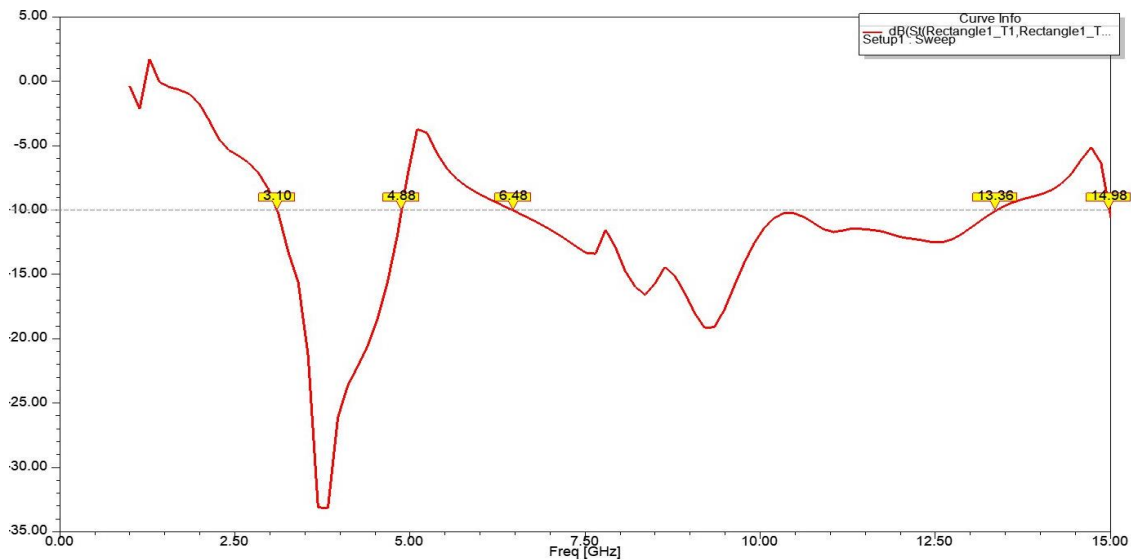


Fig 5.17: Return loss (S11) w.r.t frequency

S12

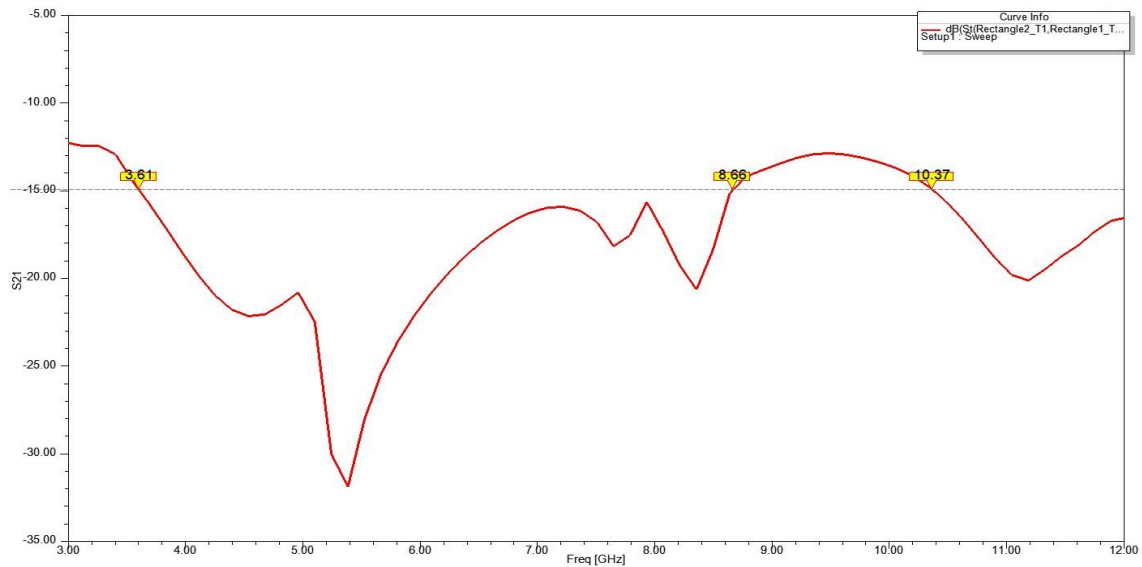


Fig 5.18: S12 w.r.t frequency

In fig 5.17 the S11 curve represents the return loss of UWB MIMO antenna. In the fig 5.4 the curve below -10 dB represents passing band. In range 4.88-6.88 GHz frequency the curve above -10 dB so we say that it rejecting the required band. In fig 5.18 S12 it showing mutual coupling curve. It providing low mutual coupling from 3.61 to 8.66 GHz. The curve is under -15dB. So SRR acting as decoupling structure.

Surface Current distribution:

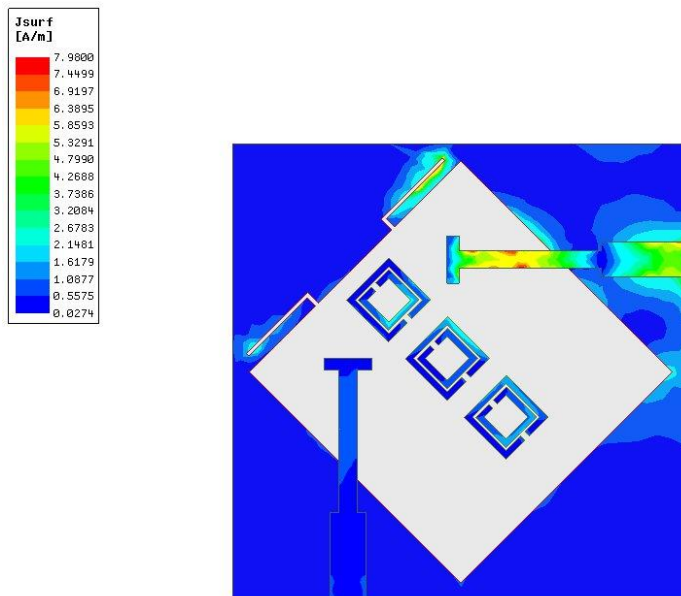


Fig 5.19: Magnitude surface current distribution

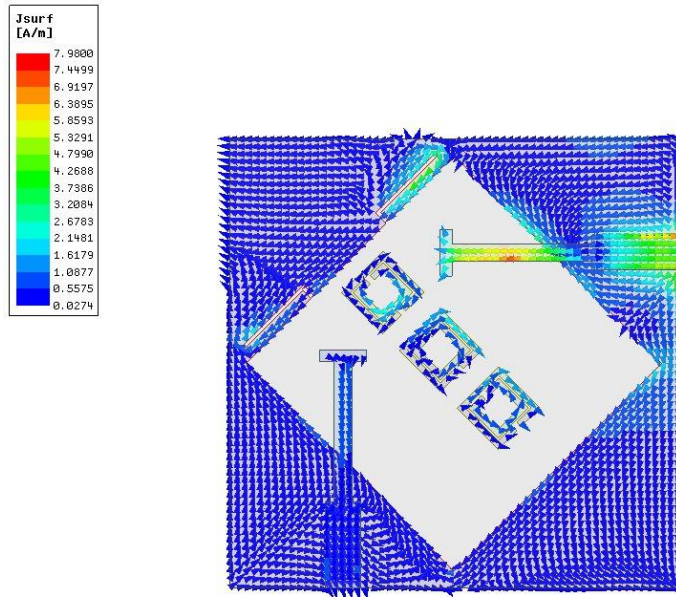


Fig 5.20: Vector surface current distribution

VSWR:

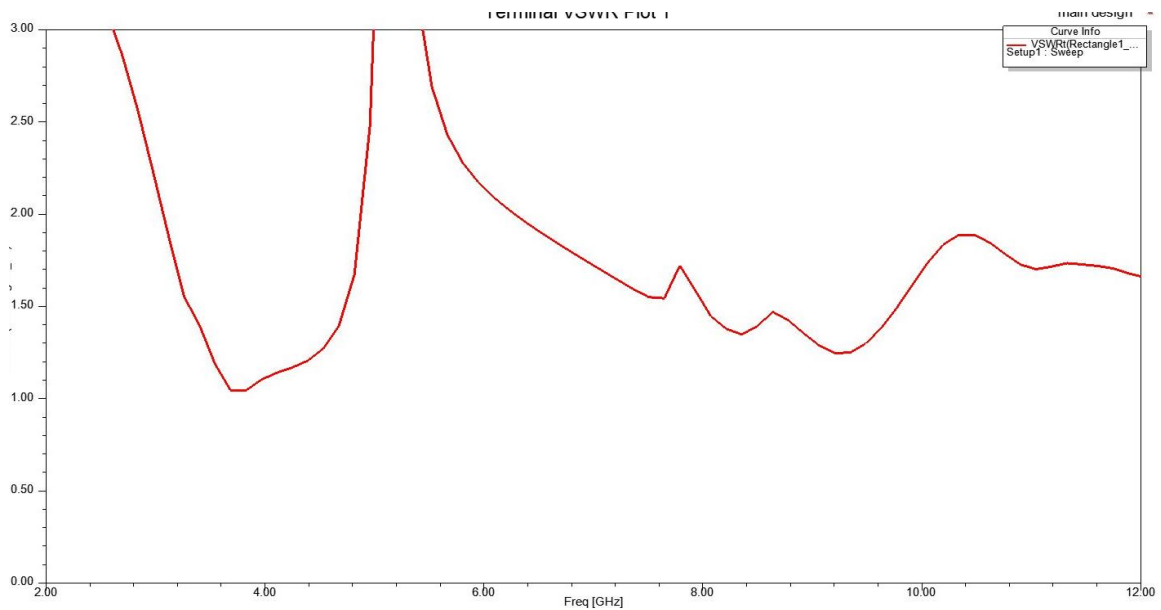


Fig 5.21: Variation of VSWR w.r.t frequency

Fig 5.21 showing VSWR curve of UWB MIMO antenna with SSR. A properly impedance matched antenna will have VSWR equal to one. The value of VSWR for the frequency 5.15 to 5.85 GHz is greater than 2. In that frequency band return loss is more than -10dB.

Gain:

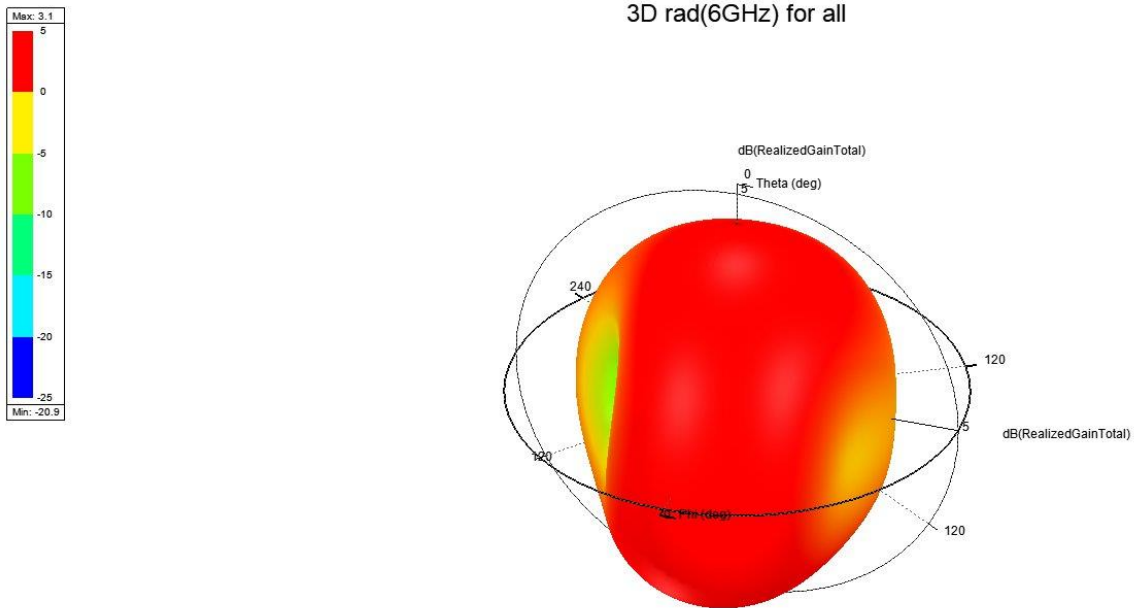
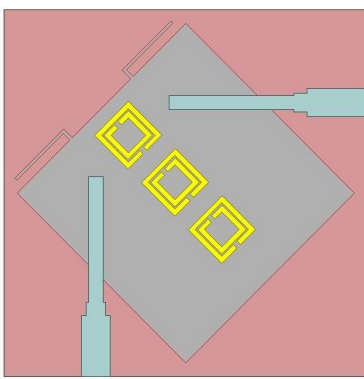


Fig 5.22: Gain of antenna with SRR

5.6 UWB MIMO Antenna with band notch characteristics:

We have designed the UWB MIMO antennas with parasitic T strip, SRR and antenna elements. From results we can conclude that T strip and SRR acts as a good decoupling structure but the notch band is more than wireless operating frequency band. It may cause loss of information while receiving signals and sending signals from the antenna. We made changes to the antenna so that antenna able to provide desired notch band and less mutual coupling between antenna elements in MIMO antenna. Design of a MIMO antenna with T shape is done using HFSS and is as follows and antenna geometric view is as shown in figure.

5.6.1 Final design of UWB MIMO antenna:



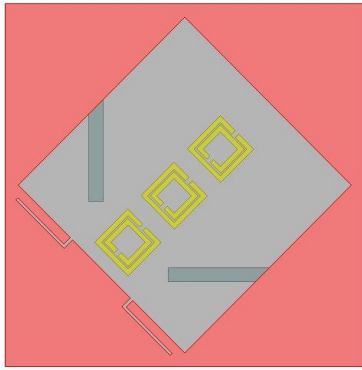


Fig 5.23(a):Top view of
5.23(c):Trimetric MIMO antenna

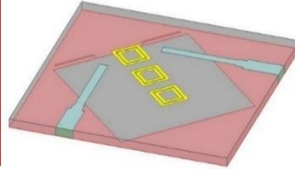


Fig 5.23(b):Bottom view of Fig
MIMO antenna view of MIMO

Fig 5.23 illustrates the geometry of the proposed band-notched UWB MIMO antenna. The designed antenna with an overall size of $38.5 \times 38.5 \text{ mm}^2$ is printed on an FR4 substrate with a thickness of 1.6 mm and a relative dielectric constant of 4.4. It consists of two orthogonal microstrip-fed lines, a split ring resonator, and a ground plane etched with a rhombic slot and a pair of L-shaped slits. Both the microstrip-fed lines at an offset distance from the center have three stages for impedance transforming. The parasitic strip placed between the antenna elements plays an important role in isolation improvement. It consists of two major parts: a strip along the diagonal and the other perpendicular to the diagonal. The ground plane is designed on the other side of the substrate. The slits etched on the ground are used to produce a notched band at 5.5 GHz. The numerical analysis and geometry refinement of the antenna structure were carried out by using electromagnetic simulation software HFSS from ANSYS.

Fig 5.23(b) and Fig 5.23(c) are the bottom view and trimetric view of the antenna respectively. The notch frequency and the high order resonant frequencies increase. An increase in the VSWR at notch frequency. The able to reject the desired frequency. the L shaped slits used to define the band notch frequency and the T shape strip is helpful in decreasing the mutual coupling between antenna elements and increase the ECC. The antenna elements which are perpendicular to one another helps to obtain polarization diversity.

Table 5.3

Parameters of UWB MIMO antenna

Design parameters	Dimensions(mm)
Ground length	38.5
Ground width	38.5
Substrate length	38.5
Substrate width	38.5
Substrate height	1.6
Diamond shape length	25.2
Diamond shape width	25.2
L shape parallel slit length	7.3
L shape perpendicular slit length	1.3
L shape slit width	0.3
Antenna element(lower) length	6.4
Antenna element(lower) width	3
Antenna element(middle) length	1.3888
Antenna element(middle) width	2
Antenna element(top) length	13.222
Antenna element(top) width	1.5
SRR inner ring length	4
SRR inner ring width	4
SRR outer ring length	5
SRR outer ring width	5
SRR ring thickness	1

The distance between two split ring resonator is 2 mm. the distance between two L shaped slits is 8.3 mm. The distance between L shaped slits diamond side to Split ring resonator is 2.19 mm. The distance between two rings in SRR is 0.5 mm. From the point which antenna element cuts the diamond shape to SRR is 10.35mm.

5.6.2 Results of UWB MIMO Antenna:

S11

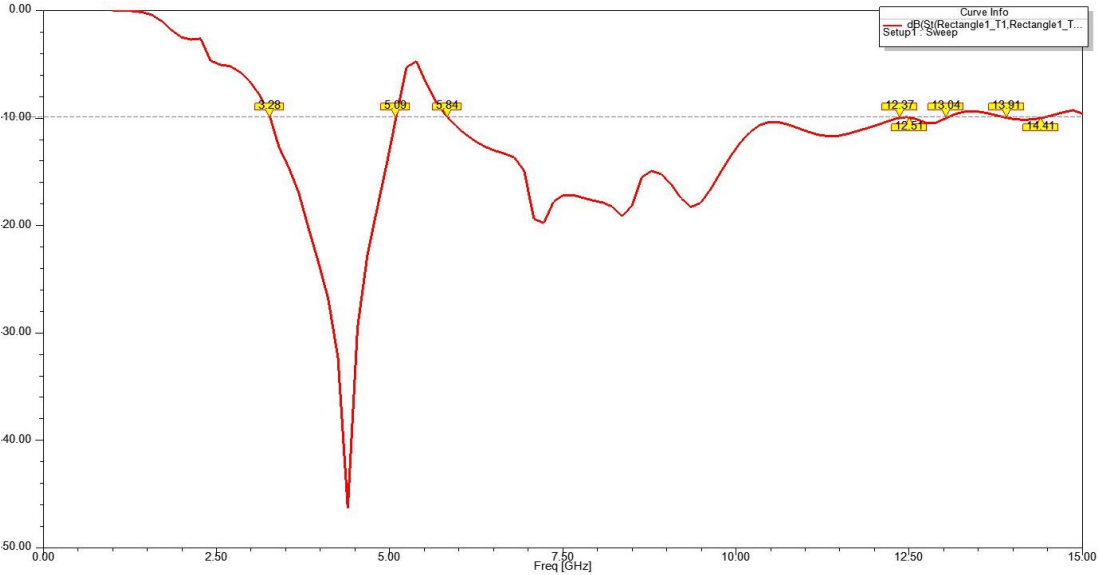


Fig 5.24: Return loss (S11) w.r.t frequency

S21

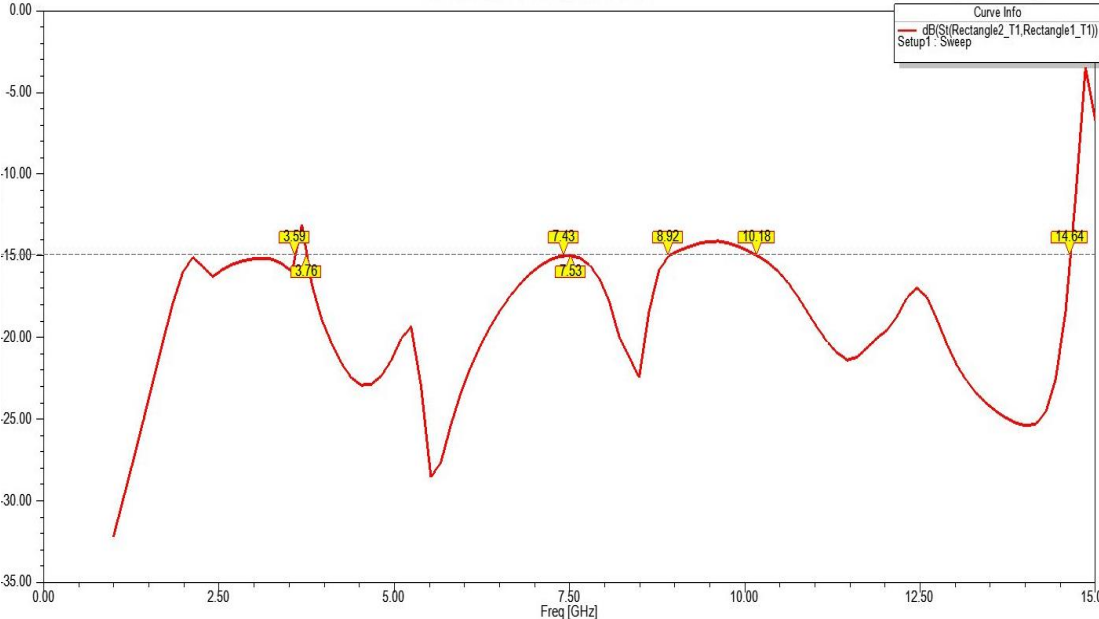


Fig 5.25: S12 w.r.t frequency

In fig 5.24 the S11 curve represents the return loss of UWB MIMO antenna. In the fig 5.21 the curve below -10 dB represents passing band. In range of 5-6 GHz frequency the curve is above -10 dB so we say that it rejecting the required frequency band. In fig 5.25 S12 it showing mutual coupling curve. It providing low mutual coupling from 3.76 to 7.43 GHz and 7.53 to 8.92 GHz. The curve is under 15dB. So SRR acting as decoupling structure.

Surface Current distribution:

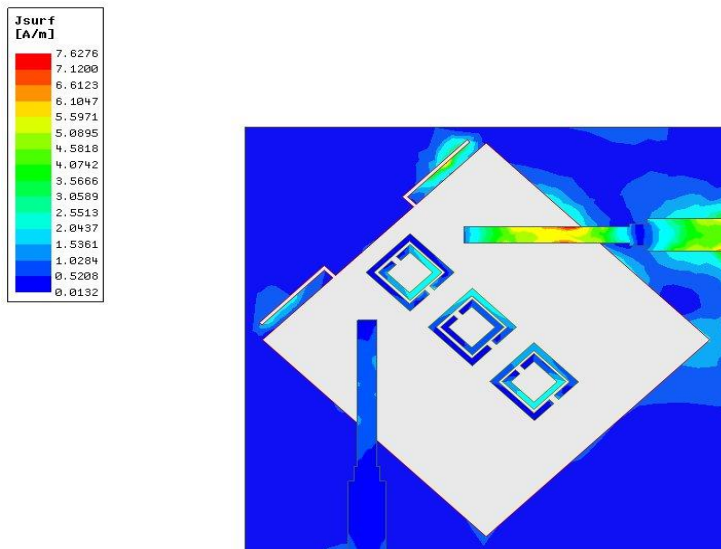


Fig 5.26: Magnitude surface current distribution

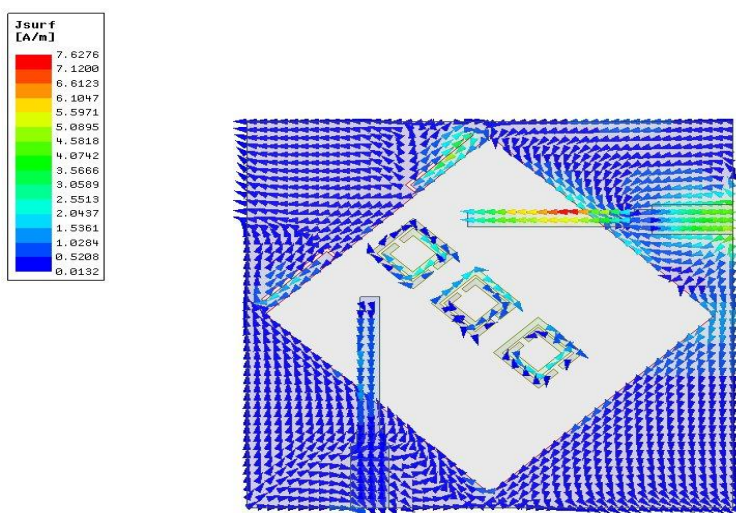


Fig 5.27: Vector surface current distribution

VSWR:

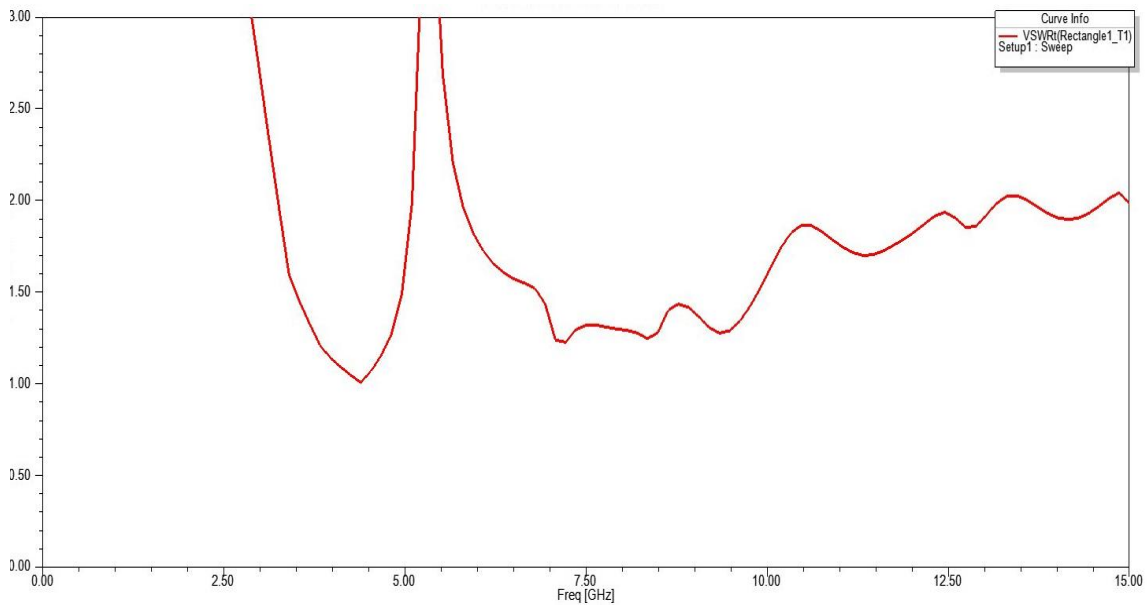


Fig5.28: Variation of VSWR w.r.t frequency

Fig 5.28 showing VSWR curve of UWB MIMO antenna with split ring resonator. properly impedance matched antenna will have VSWR equal to one. The value of VSWR for the frequency 5.15 to 5.85 GHz is greater than 2. In that frequency band return loss is more than -10dB.

Realized gain:

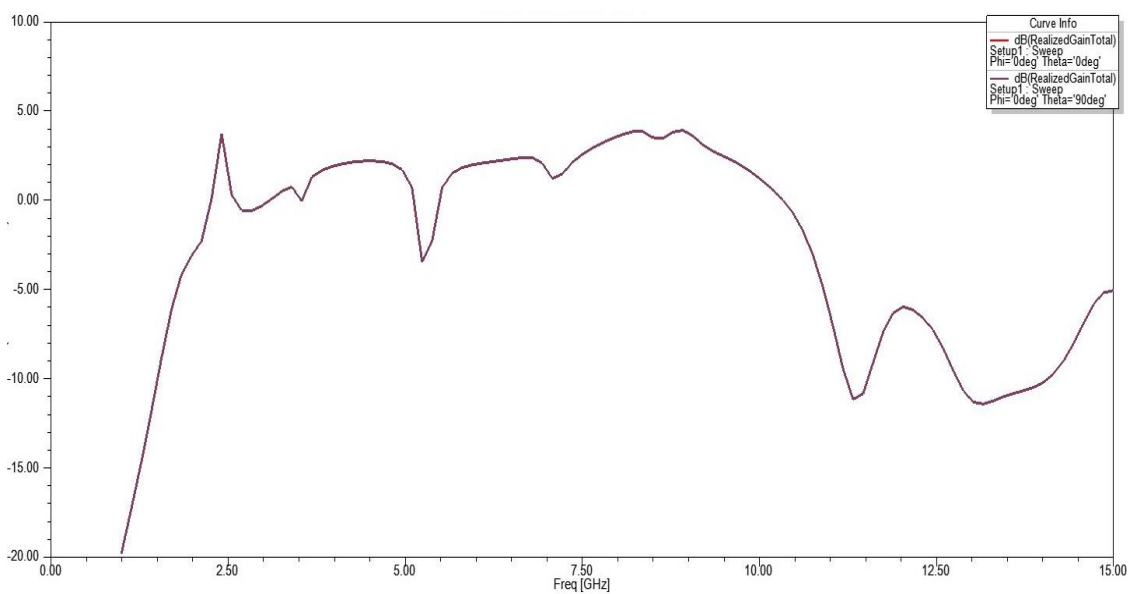


Fig5.29: realized gain w.r.t frequency

Gain:

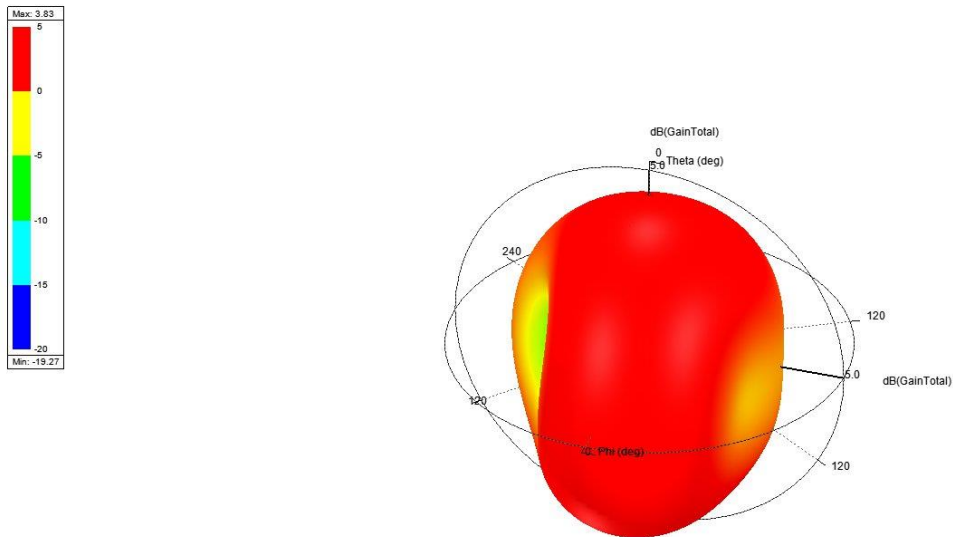


Fig 5.30: Gain of antenna at 6 GHZ

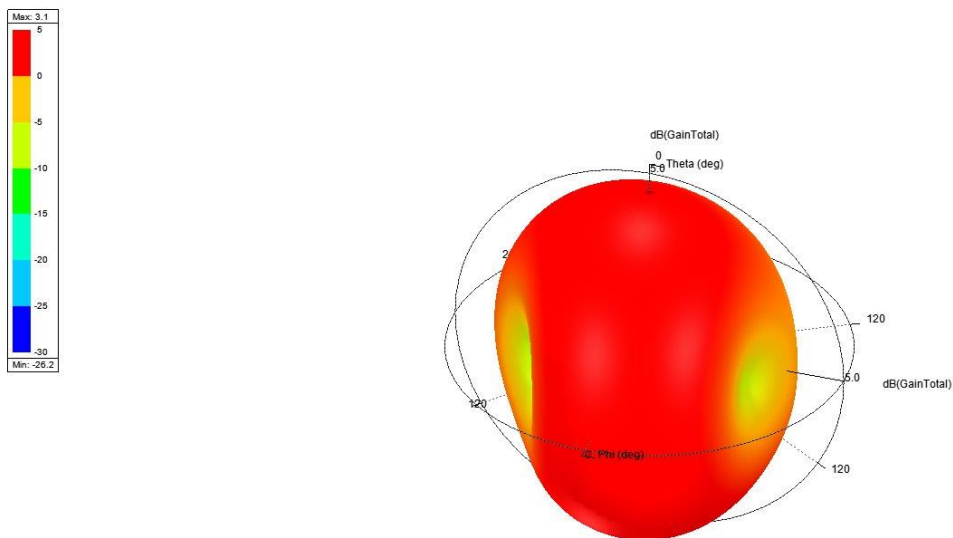


Fig 5.31: Gain of antenna at 4.5 GHZ

6. Conclusion

In the project, we have designed a basic rectangular microstrip patch antenna that works in the UWB range. i.e 3.1 to 10.6 GHz. The proposed antenna has a simple geometry and design process. The proposed antenna uses very low energy for short-range and high bandwidth communication for over a large portion of the radio spectrum. The offset microstrip-fed lines are employed to feed the antenna with wideband impedance matching. The return loss is below -10dB and VSWR are well below the mark (VSWR less than 2) for the operating frequency range of UWB (3.1-10.6 GHz).

UWB MIMO antenna with band-notched characteristics has been designed to create a notch (at 5 to 6 GHz) in the UWB range where Wi-Fi applications that were also used. This may cause interference in the signals. To reduce this destructive interference notch is included in this antenna by introducing slits in the ground of the antenna. Port isolation is improved by using a simple decoupling structure

VSWR is greater than 2 and return loss more than -10dB at rejection frequency band (5 to 6GHz). The antenna elements in the antenna help to perform polarization diversity. With the features mentioned above and a compact size, the proposed antenna can be a promising candidate for MIMO/diversity systems.